The Nation.

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The Week.

So many people are making figures over the coming election in this State that a recurrence to facts may be useful, and may save some over-confident persons their money. In 1883 all of the Democratic State ticket was elected by about 16,000 plurality, except the Secretary of State. For this office Carr (Rep.) was elected by 18,583 plurality. In 1884 Cleveland (Dem) received the electoral vote of the State by 1,047 plurality, and in 1888 Harrison (Rep) received it by 14,373 plurality. The elections other than Presidential since 1883 have all been carried by the Democrats, and by the following pluralities:

	Dem. Plurality.
1885—Governor	11,134
1886—Court of Appeals	7,797
1887—Secretary of State	17,077
1888—Governor	29,527
1889—Secretary of State	19,171
1890—Congress	75,646

The very large Democratic majority last year was due to the McKinley Bill. There is no evidence that that bill is a whit more acceptable to the people now than it was then. But, on the other hand, it is less conspicuous as an issue now. How much influence it will exercise on the present election it would be unsafe to predict, but it will be something, and it will be adverse to the Republicans. Probably the silver question will count for more than the tariff question in so far as national issues go; and here, too, Mr. Flower represents the better side, and will get most votes, his party having committed itself against all silver dollars that are not of the same intrinsic value as gold dollars. On the other side, Mr. Fassett has the advantage of the ballot-reform issue, and this might have given him enough votes to offset Mr. Flower's advantages on national issues if he had not presented himself in shirt-sleeves at the German meeting in the Bowery—not that this was anything bad in itself, but it was one of those small things that enable the public to "size up" a candidate.

It is difficult to see how Mr. Flower's carefully deliberated letter on the blanket-ballot issue has bettered his position. He was asked to say directly whether or not he was in favor of a blanket-ballot amendment. He declines to answer directly, taking refuge in the statement that "if the public sentiment of our State shall favor any proper extension or amendment of the Ballot Law, I shall, if elected Governor, feel bound to support it." This is the kind of answer known in political literature as a "dodge" or "straddle." It means nothing whatever as to Mr. Flower's course, were he to be elected Governor; and were a blanket-ballot amendment to be sent to him by the Legislature for approval, he could say that he did not consider that a "proper" amendment, and his pledge would not be broken. It was perfectly easy for him to answer the Municipal League question in unmistakable language. Mr. Fassett's response shows this plainly enough. He says: "I am not only now in favor of a genuine Australian blanket ballot, such as you describe, in its essential features, but I was so at the time 51,000 citizens petitioned our Legislature for such a reform; and I shall continue to favor the same whether elected or not." There is no doubt whatever about what that means.

We feel quite sure that Mr. Andrew D. White could show the Republicans that he is not disgruntled because he was not nominated for Governor of New York, with far less outlay than he is now making. In his speech on Saturday night, in the Cooper Institute, he might, without the slightest risk, have spared himself the following bit of dithyramb:

"As regards the foreign policy of this Administration there is no thinking man who will deny, no pessimist so cynical, no alarmist so severe, who has not in his heart to acknowledge that the foreign interests of the United States on every sea and on every shore are safe in the hands of our Republican Secretary of State, James G. Blaine."

As Mr. White is known to be an educated man and ex-diplomat and ex-College President, a large number of the "thinking men," as well as the cynics and pessimists and alarmists, will, we fear, think "in their hearts" that he either did not believe this or did not know exactly what he meant when he said it. The trouble with nearly all our "scholars and gentlemen" who have set out to be "good Republicans" is, that, to use a commercial simile, they never get in on the ground floor. They are always admitted in the fifth story, where they pay the top of the market for their stock, and it is generally common stock at that.

The campaign in Massachusetts is fought on national issues mainly, and of these the silver question appears to be the most prominent. It is argued by the supporters of Gov. Russell that if Massachusetts is lost to the Democrats this year, the result will give the free-coinage party in other sections of the country a great impetus, and probably enable them to pass a free-coinage bill this winter, whereas, if Gov. Russell is re-elected on the anti-silver platform, the result will be an equally decisive set-back to the silver-men, and will prevent any bad legislation by the new Congress. The platform on which Gov. Russell was nominated declares that all dollars coined by the United States should be of equal intrinsic value, and that the present law increasing the Government purchases of silver two and one-half times the former amount, and compelling the Government to buy seven tons of silver bullion every working day in the year, "is a menace to the maintenance of a sound and stable currency, and threatens, if not repealed, to derange values, impair the obligation of contracts, and to bring the currency of the country to a silver basis." This platform has put all the Republican politicians to their trumps to uphold the present law. Senator Hoar is, of course, strong for it, because it is a party measure. This is as it should be. The party passed the bill in order to hold the newly created States in the Republican column, and it must stick to the bill for the same reason.

The feature of the Iowa campaign is the announcement by many men of both the great national parties that they propose to vote against the candidates of their own party in the pending election, on the ground that this is a State contest, the chief issue in which—prohibition—has nothing to do with Federal politics. The Republican papers mention name after name of men who voted the Democratic ticket in the last Presidential election and expect to vote the same ticket in 1892, but who believe in the prohibitory law as the best method of dealing with the liquor problem, and will support the Republican candidates for Governor and members of the Legislature, because they are committed to the support of that law. On the other hand, many life-long Republicans will vote for the re-election of Gov. Boies and for Democratic candidates for the Legislature, because they are disgusted with the farce of prohibition and desire to see a local-option system substituted in its place. Among the latter class is James G. Day, who has been Chief Justice of the highest court and is one of the most influential men in the State.

Secretary Foster said in a very sober way in his speech at Findlay, Ohio, that he "had caused a search to be made of all manufactured articles upon which the duties had been increased by the McKinley Bill, and had found *only two articles* that have increased in price, and these were pearl buttons and corsets." One dry-goods store in Boston furnished Gov. Russell a list of 112 such articles on its own shelves and counters, showing that Secretary Foster's search was by no means exhaustive. On the subject of corsets, the Secretary waxed facetious, saying:

"I am grieved over the corset business because the increased price is objectionable to the ladies, causing them all to feel unkindly towards the gallant Maj. McKinley, but I can assure them that if they will possess their souls in patience, it will not be long till *Yankee ingenuity* will find a way to cheapen them, provided, always, that a substitute can be found for whalebone."

That "Yankee ingenuity" found a way to *increase* the price of corsets will be apparent to anybody who puts the old tariff and the McKinley tariff side by side. The old law ran in this way:

"324. Cotton cords, braids, gimps, galloons,

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webbing, goring, suspenders, braces, and all manufactures of cotton not specially enumerated or provided for in this act, *and corsets of whatever material composed*, 35 per centum ad valorem."

In the McKinley tariff the words in italics were simply dropped out. The effect is to make corsets dutiable according to the material of which they are composed; that is, if they are of linen, they are taxed 55 per cent., of silk, 60 per cent., of cotton, 40 per cent. The Yankee who accomplished all this without debate, by simply crossing out a line, was certainly ingenious, but hardly more so than Mr. Foster himself, who could search the whole list of manufactures and find only two things that had advanced in price.

Secretary Foster's attempt in Ohio last week to show that the Treasury is perfectly overflowing with money was so surprisingly vague and evasive as really to confirm the suspicions on that subject, instead of allaying them. He again denied that he had issued orders to hold back payments on appropriations; yet he said nothing to explain the fact, as shown by the record of actual operations in the Treasury, that the payments for the first quarter of the current fiscal year were at least $40,000,000 less than the liability for that period on account of appropriations—the latter calling for $125,000,000 quarterly, while but $84,471,733 was actually paid out. Unless he is misreported in the *Tribune*, he made a bad blunder, or worse, in one statement. He said the Treasury paid $26,000,000 in pensions last June "without any inconvenience whatever." As a matter of fact, the Treasury paid out in June on account of pensions the sum of $18,721,585. We believe he told the truth in saying that about $26 000,000 were due on pensions; but the fact that about $7,250,000 had to go unpaid for lack of funds, would seem to prove that there was "inconvenience" somewhere.

The Georgia Legislature, which has just adjourned, was controlled absolutely by the Farmers' Alliance, and was elected upon the most profuse pledges of economy and retrenchment. Instead of carrying out these pledges, it has spent more money than any Legislature in the history of the State, with the result that the tax-rate is the highest ever known. This is of a piece with the performances of Alliance law-makers in Kansas and Nebraska. There has been much speculation as to the permanence of the Alliance movement. It is a waste of time to discuss the question. No party can long survive such a record as the Alliance has made wherever it has come into power.

Nobody will be surprised at the news that Quay's name has been connected by documentary evidence with that of Bardsley in the Keystone Bank rascalities. The evidence was produced in Harrisburg on Tuesday by the Attorney-General of Pennsylvania, who tried in vain to have it brought before the Senate. It consists of a Keystone National Bank certificate for $8,877, deposited by John Bardsley, November 29, 1889, payable to the order of himself, and signed by G. W. Marsh, cashier. It is endorsed: "Pay to order of M. S. Quay, John Bardsley," and under this endorsement appear Quay's signature and other endorsements, showing that Quay had the certificate cashed at his bank in Beaver, Penn., after which it travelled back through the Clearing-house to the Keystone Bank. Marsh, who signed the certificate as cashier, was afterwards the President of the Keystone Bank. As cashier and President he concealed the theft of Lucas, the former President, of $997,000 of the bank's funds. When the Keystone Bank investigation began, Marsh fled, forfeiting the $25,000 bail bond which John Wanamaker's brother had signed for him. The inference which is drawn from the certificate is, that the $8,877 which Bardsley thus handed to Quay was taken by the latter from the State money which he had on deposit in the Keystone Bank and given to Quay for use in politics. Over a million dollars of State money was at that time on deposit by Bardsley in the Keystone Bank, and no trace of what became of it has been found either in the bank's accounts or in Bardsley's. It has been generally suspected that a good deal of it went "into politics," and it is natural, therefore, that this suspicious certificate should be taken as strong evidence of such disposition. The explanation which Quay's friends now put forward strengthens this view. According to the Harrisburg correspondent of the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, it is that Quay contributed $10,000 for campaign purposes in 1889, of which he paid $1,000 in cash; that he gave his note for $9,000 to David Martin, who had it discounted by Bardsley, receiving from the latter this certificate which was for $9,000 less the interest for three months; that when the note became due Quay took it up. If this be a truthful statement, and if satisfactory proof of its truthfulness shall be adduced, it will still stand confessed that Bardsley and Quay were using public money for campaign purposes, and that the money thus used was, apparently, a part of the million or more which the State lost in the Keystone Bank through Bardsley's rascalities. It is said that the books of the Keystone Bank contain no record of the deposit by Bardsley upon which the certificate was issued.

In addition to the weakness of the above explanation, the conduct of the Republican majority in the Senate this week furnishes strong corroborative evidence against the alleged innocent character of the transactions. They have resisted by all possible parliamentary expedients the efforts of the Attorney-General and the Democratic Senators to get this certificate in evidence before them. They take the position that it is not relevant to their inquiry; but if it were entirely innocent, and proof of its innocence were possible, is it reasonable to suppose that they would be so anxious to exclude it? In fact, its admission as evidence would make it necessary for them to summon Quay as a witness, to give, under oath, rather than through the newspapers, his explanation of the transaction, and that would certainly be the most satisfactory way for him to meet the charge. This is the crucial point in the matter. Quay will never allow himself, if he can help it, to be put under oath and subjected to examination on this or any other point connected with his dealings with State money. He had the Legislative inquiry, which came to so impotent a conclusion a few weeks ago, restricted to the present State Treasurer in order that he might escape the danger of being put on the witness stand—a danger which caused him to flee the State as soon as it was threatened. He has compelled the Senate to exclude this certificate for the same reason. We presume that there is not an intelligent person in Pennsylvania who has any reasonable doubt that the certificate is evidence of guilty partnership between Quay and Bardsley for the use of public money for campaign purposes. It is interesting to observe that the go-between in the Bardsley-Quay transaction, "Dave" Martin, is the man whom the State Auditor, McCamant, mentioned in his incriminating "burn this letter" to Bardsley as a useful man to have put on the watch against persons who were suspected of an intention to make unpleasant exposures. That makes the ring of Keystone Bank, Bardsley, McCamant, and Quay rounded and complete.

The oppressions visited upon the importers of worsted clothing by the Government during recent years have been peculiarly heavy, and they have been lately renewed with extreme violence. We are not now speaking of the increased duty imposed by the tariff, but of the practices under it. Two years ago the manufacturers of worsteds, by dint of begging and lying, prevailed upon the Secretary of the Treasury to rule that worsteds were woollens, in the teeth of history, of the law, and of judicial decisions then in force. The object of this was to increase the duty on worsteds without an act of Congress to that effect. As soon as the new ruling could be brought before the courts, it was overruled. In fact, the very men who procured it predicted that it would not stand in the judicial tribunals, and for this reason they asked Congress to pass a special law in their favor, without waiting for the regular Tariff Bill. This was virtually a request that Congress should give all hands a bill of indemnity for violating a pre-existing law. This request was actually complied with, or rather was sought to be complied with, but in such a headlong fashion that the special bill itself was wrongly worded, and turned out to be a nullity. In due time the regular McKinley Bill came along, which screwed up the duties on worsted cloths valued at sixty to eighty cents per pound from 24 cents per pound and 35 per cent. to 44 cents per pound and 50 per cent. But even this proceeding did not satisfy the manufacturers. So they took into their employ a special Treasury agent to instruct

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Appraiser Cooper in his duties, and they so far succeeded as to induce Mr. Cooper to seize worsteds arriving at this port, on the ground of undervaluation. On Thursday the most respectable merchants in New York, some of them Republicans whose names are always on the campaign subscription lists, went before the Board of General Appraisers and testified that the special agent and Mr. Cooper were wrong. A letter from the United States Consul at Bradford, England, was also read to the same purport. All that the special agent could say was, that the manufacturers were convinced that the goods were undervalued, and that somebody in Philadelphia who had once made goods in Bradford had told him so. Of course, all people who have lived in Bradford and are now making worsteds here will tell the truth.

The contemptuous remark of ex-Speaker Reed about reciprocity as "commerce on paper" finds apt illustration in the statistics of our exports of manufactured cotton during the first eight months of this year. For five of those eight months we have been in the enjoyment of reciprocity with Brazil, under an arrangement which accorded particular favor to our cotton goods. It is therefore something of an eye-opener to find that our exports of cotton manufactures to Brazil for the period in question this year amounted to but $310,216, as compared with $522,420 in the corresponding part of 1890. If this is the effect of reciprocity, our exporters might say, give us no more of it, or we shall lose the rest of our trade. In fact, one might infer that it had been a very disastrous eight months all around for our foreign trade in cotton goods. But that would be a great mistake: our exports of cottons show a surprising gain. The total foots up $9,855,783 for the first eight months of 1891, as against but $6,631,428 for the same period last year. Where did the gain come in? Has there been some important treaty of reciprocity that Mr. Blaine has secretly negotiated and forgotten to mention? Alas, no! the gain all came in our exports to China. That country took of us $1,230,042 worth of cotton goods in the first eight months of 1890, and no less than $4,600,276 in the same part of the present year. Of course, this is somehow due to reciprocity and the Administration, though what the latter has done to China except to threaten her with Blair and gunboats, we do not know. But we have an unfaltering faith that Private-Secretary Halford, or some attaché of the State Department, or the Bureau of Statistics, or the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent, will, now that we call their attention to the matter, hasten to maintain that anyhow it proves we ought to vote the Republican ticket. The idea that our exporters had quietly gone ahead and developed a foreign trade without any whooping or electioneering or subsidy-seeking, must, of course, be dismissed as too unpatriotic and un-American a course to be thought of.

The recent Church Congress in England gave up a good part of one day's discussions (October 7) to the consideration of church work in the poorest quarters of the cities and in industrial and mining regions. The address of the Bishop of Bedford, who is Bishop-Suffragan for North and East London, set forth some of the mistakes which had been made in that work, mentioning among them the subdivision of parishes, with the establishment of great numbers of uninviting chapels to which the people would not go, the employment of too many intellectual or physical weaklings among the clergy, under the mistaken idea that work among the poor was easy, and the attempt "to reach the masses by mission-halls, services in lodging-house kitchens, and under railway arches." He declared that the church could not too soon eradicate the idea that she was an institution "with deferred annuities alone to bestow," and that her clergy were only a sort of special "relieving-officers." The church had a great work of charity to do, he admitted, but he said that "charity is a science," with "well-defined principles and rules which it is a sin to disregard." He would have thrift inculcated as "nothing short of a Christian virtue," while, at the same time, he would "help the people to secure time for recreation, and then teach and assist them to spend it profitably." "The art of rational recreation is . . . not foreign to the work of the church." It is gratifying to have the word of a man of such good sense that "there is no part of the East End that can truly be called 'outcast London,' and there is more of sensationalism than of truth in what is implied in the title, 'Darkest England.'"

Now that the English Liberals have committed themselves to the disestablishment of the Church in Wales, the Anglican ecclesiastics are renewing their efforts to show that the claims of the Dissenters are unfounded. The Bishop of St. Asaph has circulated a pamphlet, entitled "The Truth about the Church in Wales," in which he undertook to show that the reported numbers and importance of the Dissenting sects had been greatly exaggerated. This has brought out a reply from the Welsh Calvinistic Methodists, who show that the Bishop, at least in what he had to say about their denomination, had succumbed to the usual temptation of political stump-speakers in matters of statistics. He had asserted, for example, that "the number of communicants had steadily decreased." Pressed for figures, he had to admit that he had considered the case of but a single county, where a general depression in manufactures and trade had led to large migrations of the inhabitants, and where, very naturally, the adherents of the churches had diminished with the rest of the people. When the Bishop was taxed with this unfairness, he replied that he had not been able to find any full statistics since 1887. But the Methodists retort that he could not have searched very diligently, as such statistics had been regularly published, and showed a steady growth in the denomination, both in numbers and contributions, for the past twenty-three years. This is all the more remarkable in view of the fact that in the rural districts, where this branch of Methodism has its strongest hold, the population as a whole had actually decreased during the same period.

The plan of Uruguayan debt conversion, upon which we lately commented, has been accepted by the Congress of Uruguay in its main features. In one respect the project is better than we had supposed, since it makes a present of $2 866,953 in the new consolidated bonds to the holders of some $28,600,000 of the 6 per cent. bonds, as a partial acknowledgment of the injustice of cutting down their interest to 3½ per cent. But the Congress declined to accede to the proposal of the London bankers that 45 per cent. of the Custom-house receipts should be made the security for the interest on the consolidated debt. As this was regarded as a vital feature of the scheme, the result may be the upsetting of the whole of it, in its present shape at least. But the most remarkable thing in the entire affair is the revelation made by the President of Uruguay, in his message to Congress, of the monstrous commissions paid for the floating of former loans. The costs and commissions for negotiating the present consolidation are put in the bill at $2,519,646, and the total amount of bonds in the contemplated issue is $96,350,000. This seems high enough, but is really very cheap, as President Herrera says, in view of what Uruguay has paid on foregoing loans. The loan in 1872 of $16,450,000, emitted through Thomson, Bonar & Co., cost $1,170,425, or 10.70 per cent. of the total amount realized. The $20,000,000 conversion loan of 1888, negotiated through the Barings, cost 8 per cent. What the Barings got, or were to get, for their unmarketed $10,000,000 of last year does not appear; but the Antwerp Committee of Uruguayan bondholders allege that those bankers had themselves paid all the interest on the 1888 loan, so as to keep the nation's credit up, and that they were to have all they wanted of the 1890 issue.

However that may be, these transactions certainly cast a flood of light upon the whole wild-cat system of South American finance. No wonder that the frequent loans disappear like so much spilled water, when the borrowing countries get only nine-tenths of the face value of their bonds from the bankers, and then have to pay 6 per cent. interest on securities that sell from 20 to 30 below par. And how the bankers who were on the inside, and knew the rottenness of the whole system, could ask innocent investors to embark their savings as they did, is a question for the moralist rather than the financier.

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A WORD FOR THE POOR STATE.

THERE is one serious omission, both in this State and in Pennsylvania, in all the Republican and Democratic addresses, speeches, and manifestoes which call for a State victory this year in order to help the party ticket at the Presidential election next year. It occurs in nearly all the Flower articles in the New York *Times*, and in the address of the Democrats and Independents urging Mr. Flower's election for the sake of national issues. We need hardly say, too, that it occurs in the comments on the coming election which appear in nearly all the Republican papers in Pennsylvania, and in such "talks" as the Republican managers in that State venture to indulge in. We mean the failure to indicate the time and manner in which State or municipal abuses can be, without danger to larger interests, attacked at the polls. The utterances of the signers of the address to the Democratic and Independent voters of the State of New York, printed on Monday, were on this point absolutely hopeless, and yet among these signers were such thoughtful politicians as Charles S. Fairchild, F. C. Barlow, Stephen A Walker, Simon Sterne, E. P. Wheeler, and William L. Trenholm. They said:

> "However much we may wish it were otherwise, nevertheless, in voting upon this State election in 1891, it is necessary to consider the effect upon the national election in 1892. So long as the United States Senators are elected and Congressional districts are gerrymandered by State Legislatures; so long as State campaigns are fought by national parties; so long as these campaigns turn, in the minds of the people, upon national issues; so long as their results are generally accepted as popular verdicts upon national questions—so long must we consider the effect which State elections may have, not only upon national elections, but also upon the policies which will be adopted by political parties in national controversies."

These conditions, on which our duty at the State elections depends, are, we need hardly say, for all practical purposes, perpetual. The writers might as well have said at once that "as long as human nature is what it is," or "as long as pain and sorrow are the lot of man," we must "consider the effect which State elections may have, not only on national elections, but also upon the policies which will be adopted by political parties in national controversies." Stripping the proposition of its rhetorical drapery, it means simply that as long as there are national elections State elections must be treated as a preliminary trial of party strength on Federal questions.

Gloomy and puzzling as this proposition is, we are not now going to dispute it. But we have a right to ask its authors this question: "Given the conditions you describe, what provision have you made or do you propose to make, under the American system of government, for the reform of local abuses, and for opposition to mischievous or corrupt local organizations? You will readily perceive that one indirect, and certainly unintended, result of your theory is, that it makes the great Federal parties sanctuaries or asylums for local offenders, and you offer no suggestion as to the mode in which they can be got at by the indignant or outraged local voter; for as soon as he attempts to arrest them and bring them to justice, you stay his hand, and ask him if he has duly considered the injurious effect which a scandal of this sort will have on the fortunes of his party in the larger and more important Federal arena."

We must not be told that this right of asylum for local malefactors is only meant to be valid this year, and that it is only for the Presidential election of 1892 that it is claimed either in New York or in Pennsylvania. As we have said already, the arrangement, as described in the New York address, is clearly meant to be permanent. As a matter of experience, it has been so treated for some time in both States, here by the Democrats and there by the Republicans. It was not possible under it, as everybody knows, to get a judgment against either Tammany or Quay in 1888, because of the possible effect on the Presidential election of that year. It has not been possible in any year since 1888 to get such a judgment because of the probable effect on the election of 1892. In 1890 it seemed as if it would surely be lawful to vote at the municipal election with a single eye to municipal interests, but even then we were forced to condone a whole string of local rascalities lest we should hurt the Presidential ticket in 1892. A swarm of orators from other States actually injected themselves into the municipal canvass, and assured us that we must put up with Grant for one more mayoral term, in order to be ready to punish the Republicans in the nation at large two years later. In Pennsylvania the same plea was, *mutatis mutandis*, put forward in behalf of Delamater, who was, as we now know, a cover for a herd of State criminals.

We are not now condemning or approving of this arrangement. It may be good, or it may be bad; but it is unprecedented. It is not provided for in the State or Federal constitutions, and was not foreseen by the founders of the Government. What we say is, that those who excuse it or defend it, and still more those who commend it to the voters, are bound to produce some way of avoiding the neglect of local interests which it plainly involves. In other words, they ought to say at what elections and in what years a New York voter may rightfully attack Tammany or a Pennsylvania voter attack Quay, without damage to the national parties to which Tammany and Quay respectively belong. What are the arrangements proposed by our various party publicists for conducting State and municipal administrations with purity and efficiency?

OUR TREATMENT OF CHILI.

THE despatch of the cruiser *Boston* to Chili with a flourish of trumpets, and the obscure hints about something very serious which are issuing from some of the departments, will, we fear, make a good many people look forward with dread to our having a really powerful navy. They will ask, if we are so ready to threaten and vapor with four or five unarmored cruisers, what should we be if we had a large armored fleet, capable of forming a line of battle against a first-class maritime Power? Should we, with such a force at our disposal, ever have a Presidential election without having threatened, on some pretext or other, to bombard a foreign port in the interest of the Administration candidate?

In the ordinary course of civilized diplomacy, the despatch of increased naval force to the capital or chief port of a weaker government, especially if it be in trouble of any kind, is the last thing a first-class Power does. The reason is that the forms of diplomatic intercourse are based on the forms of intercourse between gentlemen, and when gentlemen have a dispute, the offended party never begins with a threat. He reserves this to the end, as something to be used only in case peaceful satisfaction is clearly unattainable. Now, the despatch of a naval force to the scene of a controversy is a threat; so is the increase of such naval force as may be already there. The departure of the *Boston* is undoubtedly meant to produce the impression at home that something serious is impending in Chili, and that the mysterious Somebody who now manages the State Department does not mean to "stand any nonsense," and to produce in Chili the impression that we should, on the whole, rather like a fight with that republic just now, when it is contending with a host of difficulties. But if that Somebody were really a civilized man, to say nothing of an American deacon or pewholder, he would have studiously avoided the faintest appearance of a resort to force until the resources of negotiation in this matter of the attack on the American sailors in Valparaiso had been completely exhausted.

What aggravates the unseemliness of the performance is, that the Valparaiso outrage is the natural outcome of our whole treatment of Chili since the present Administration came into power. It was, in the first place, disrespectful to the verge of insult to a "sister republic" to send as our representative to her capital, not an American of high standing and character, but a foreign adventurer who had recently arrived in the United States as a fugitive from the justice of his own country. We cannot recall in diplomatic history any such slight offered by a great Power to a friendly nation.

The Chilians bore it with great patience and even courtesy. They would have been quite justified in refusing to receive Egan as a *persona non grata*. But they did receive him and treated him civilly. Far from being conciliated by this forbearance of theirs, when an attempt was made a little later by the President to overturn the Republic in Napoleonic fashion and set up a dictatorship in its stead, we at once, through every instrumentality within our reach, showed our sympathy with the traitor, and treated him—a rebel in arms—as the lawful Chilian Government. When the men who were trying, against heavy odds, to save their liberty and laws, and who represented all that was left of the Constitution, tried to buy a few cases of arms in the United States, we pounced

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on them almost with fury as public enemies, and started one of the new cruisers, with great noise, to "blow them out of the water" for committing a misdemeanor. There is, too, evidence of the strongest kind that Egan was the open partisan and mouthpiece of Balmaceda, if not his partner in speculations, and that our squadron was by no means careful to maintain a neutral attitude towards the contending parties—our flagship actually conveying to the Dictator important information about movements of the Congressional army.

That the Chilian populace should, after this had gone on for many months, have become greatly excited against Americans, is not surprising. It would be wonderful if they had not, and they are still in about the same stage of civilization as the street mobs in some of our own large cities—New York and New Orleans for instance. If our Government had had to put up with a similar series of annoyances and slights from the British Minister and Navy during the rebellion, we venture to say British sailors in uniform would have run considerable risk in appearing on our streets in 1862 or 1863; and if they had suffered injury or insults, assuredly we should have felt that Mr. Seward was entitled to great consideration and forbearance while endeavoring to settle the matter.

The present Government of Chili have a most difficult task before them in restoring the normal working of the administrative and legislative machinery, in reëstablishing the national credit, reorganizing the army and navy, and effecting the constitutional reforms which Balmaceda's attempt has shown to be necessary. They are therefore entitled to great indulgence at our hands. We ought not to increase their difficulties by unnecessary threats or insults. We ought, as Republicans, to do to them as we would be done by. We ought not to use our new cruisers, in childish glee, to vindicate Quay and Dudley and save the tariff at their expense. This is our work, and if it has to be done, the cost should fall on Americans exclusively.

EUROPEAN PUBLICISTS ON EMIGRATION.

In accordance with a suggestion of the Emigration Congress at the last World's Fair, a "Commission Permanente Internationale pour la Protection des Émigrants" was formed at Paris in December last, M. Levasseur being chosen its President, and the Prince de Cassano, who had been the moving spirit in its organization, becoming its general secretary. A committee of seven was promptly appointed to determine the "minimum of desiderata." Five of the seven, including Gen. Meredith Read, the American member, were unable to serve. Consequently, Professors Renault and Lyon-Caen of the Paris School of Law had the matter all their own way, and have finally published their report in the first number of the Commission's *Bulletin*. In an address delivered before the Paris Society of Commercial Geography, and afterwards published under the title 'Les Conditions Actuelles de l'Émigration Européenne,' the Prince de Cassano had already emphasized the evil wrought by unscrupulous emigration agents—an evil quite as great as he estimated it—and now the Committee have proposed means of amelioration, which, however, go by no means to the root of the matter. In fact, neither he nor they seemed to recognize how necessary a part of the present system unscrupulous agents are. Enormous steamers, built and run at enormous expense and in ever-increasing numbers, must be filled with emigrants, or dividends will cease. Several countries, the Prince de Cassano's native Italy among them, refuse to the transatlantic lines the subsidies they pay to others, for the avowed reason that the transatlantic lines can count on large sums in steerage money. The companies, accordingly, instruct their agents to see to it that there be no miscount. The agents, who work very largely by means of lies, naturally have the greatest success with the most ignorant—a fact that goes far towards explaining the steady deterioration of the immigrants landing in this city.

To remedy this state of things, the Committee proposes that all countries which, either by propaganda or by special laws, attempt to attract foreign workmen, shall reject every immigrant whose "contract" (whatever that may be) has not been signed either by one of their own consuls or by their specially appointed immigration agent, and also by the authorities of the port of embarkation or by a consul of the immigrant's native country. The only reason suggested for an immigration agent's refusing to sign the contracts of would-be immigrants to his land is that the trades men tioned in the contracts are unknown there. The conditions under which the domestic official should withhold his signature are not specified. But even the fantastic proposition to make the right of emigration dependent upon the caprice of an official at the often foreign port of embarkation is outdone in absurdity by the provision (article 9 of the report) that "lands placed gratuitously at the disposition of immigrants by the country to which they emigrate, should be provided with a house of at least two rooms," at public cost! After this, the further proposition (art. 14) to pension the widows and orphans of emigrants who die within a year or even longer after their arrival, seems to follow as a matter of course, and would not have been mentioned here save that it contains a practical suggestion (the only practical thing in the whole report) for Republican members of Congress. The idea advanced in it is capable of great improvement, and could undoubtedly be so developed as to relieve any possible congestion of the Treasury. To make the suggestion still more practical, it might be turned about: when wife or child dies, pension the vote of the surviving immigrant.

While one international association is thus entertaining silly suggestions with regard to emigration, another and more important association has been practically refusing to entertain sensible ones. At Hamburg the other day, the "Institute of International Law" was on the point of rejecting without debate the report on the admission and exclusion of foreigners which had been laid before it by its newly-elected president, Prof. von Bar of Göttingen. As might have been expected from Von Bar's pronounced "freisinnige" tendencies, his report was very liberal, viewing the matter almost exclusively from the standpoint of the individual emigrant, not from that of the States concerned. Nevertheless it conformed to the only sound principle, viz., that emigration is a right, immigration a privilege—a privilege, however, whose free exercise is of such importance that it should be restricted as little as possible. Among his more characteristic propositions were these: "Any act which forbids the subjects of a State to enter it or to remain in it, is contrary to international law." "In case of great political necessity, a State may expel subjects, but only when it is certain that the territory of many other civilized States, which they can conveniently reach and where they can live in peace, remains open to the persons expelled." "Immigration should be hindered only in the public interest, and from motives of extraordinary gravity, *e. g.*, on account of fundamental difference of race or of customs, or where numerous foreigners, having entered the State, may, by organizing, endanger it." "A State can refuse admission to persons who, after the artificial rules of another State have made it possible for them to live there for a long time, are forced to emigrate and to spread themselves over other lands in search of work [Russian Jews?]; but, on the other hand, protection of national labor is not alone a sufficient ground for exclusion." "It is desirable that admission and expulsion be regulated by law."

While such propositions as these are undoubtedly in advance of the present conditions of international law, perhaps in advance of any condition it will ever reach, still there can be no doubt that they form a suitable subject for discussion by the Institute. It was therefore surprising when several members, among them Prof. Renault, declared one after another that the matter must be settled by municipal law, and consequently that the report was out of place. Prof. von Bar reminded the Institute that he had prepared the report in response to a formal invitation which they tendered him in their last session at Lausaone and added that he was unable to see why the subject was less important or less appropriate now than three years ago. Rolin-Jacquemyns (Belgium) begged that the members would not, on account of recent political events, refuse consideration to a question of such importance. Lord Reay declared that there was no probability of England's enacting any law on the subject. Albérie Rulin, in response, emphasiz d the fact that the Institute did not desire to force laws on anybody, but simply to formulate the views of competent scholars; and finally, upon motion of

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Asser (Holland), supported by Von Bar himself, the debate was postponed to the next session. This little comedy is only intelligible when regarded as an afterpiece to the great Franco-Russian drama at Cronstadt. Prof. Renault is quite willing to recommend all sorts of impossible humanities to the three Americas, but unwilling to see an important body like the "Institut de Droit International" adopt or even discuss a report which, at least by implication, condemns the expulsion of Jews from Russia.

ARGENTINE FARMING.

SINCE the disastrous close of the era of speculation in Argentina, a great amount of attention has been given to the legitimate development of the country. This has come about partly as a healthful reaction from the absurd overdoing of business on paper, and partly as a consequence of the general conviction that the only escape of the nation from disgraceful bankruptcy is by growing crops to pay the interest on the national debt. At any rate, there can be no question that the past year, so calamitous financially, has been, agriculturally, one of great activity. Yet the actual condition of the farming interest in the Argentine Republic is hard to get at, so conflicting is the evidence both as to the development and the profits of agriculture there.

On one side we have brightly colored and apparently authentic pictures of the outlook and opportunities of the Argentine farmer. Thus an Englishman, R. W. Traill, wrote to the London *Times* from his own farm, in the province of Santa Fé, August 1, 1891, declaring that in wheat-growing a profit of 23 shillings 11 pence per acre could be made on land costing only from 30 to 40 shillings the acre. He proceeded to prove this from his own experience by giving his budget for a year, which he vouched for as "absolutely correct." He added: "If Englishmen who have an interest in this country would invest their money in productive work instead of making loans to the natives, the Argentine Republic would soon improve its position, and they individually would secure a fortune and find that the country was healthy and fairly satisfactory to live in." In like manner a correspondent of an English paper published in Buenos Ayres gave what purported to be authentic statistics for the two great branches of farming in Argentina—cattle and wheat—showing a yearly return, in the former case, of $9,000 on an investment of $30,000, and in the latter, of $33,600 on an outlay of $60,000.

Unfortunately, both these letters are couched in somewhat vague terms, and it is to be feared that analysis of details, taking into account the matter of locality and transportation, would put a very different face on the affair. This fear is certainly given color by the fact that two great English land companies, owning vast tracts in the very provinces where these extraordinary profits are reported, have made nothing at all. The Santa Fé Land Company purchased 4,336,150 acres in 1883, at about 3 shillings the acre; but its stock is now quoted at a price which would make its holdings worth only a little over 2 shillings the acre, and it has never paid a dividend in all the seven years of its existence. The Cordova Company was brought out in 1888, and has paid one dividend of 5 per cent.; but its shares are now quoted at sixty cents on the dollar. How these things can be in the same provinces and in the same business where private farmers claim to be making 50 per cent. profit, is difficult to understand. Much more reasonable appear the estimates lately put forth in the report of the National Hypothecary Bank. These were intended for the guidance of immigrants, and particularly of foreign investors who might be asked to loan money on Argentine real estate. Taking up first the "open camp" system of cattle-raising, under the smallest possible outlay of capital, the report gives details showing an average profit of 2.65 per cent. With heavier investments and consequent improvement in methods and cultivation, a profit of 5.44 per cent. is shown. Still further improvements, purchase of better breeds of animals, etc., with the heavier outlay involved, push the profits up to 9.36 per cent. Higher returns are asserted in the case of wheat-growing. As this report was drawn up by a body of experienced Argentine gentlemen, some of whom are ready to invest in land on the basis of the values therein assigned, it probably comes pretty near the actual facts.

One branch of the agricultural export trade of Argentina has proved highly disappointing to those engaged in it—the shipment of cattle and sheep to Europe. This was taken up with great enthusiasm a few years ago, partly under the promise of a Government guarantee of interest on the capital invested, and partly on the basis of the great success of the business of shipping frozen mutton to England from Australia and New Zealand. But the report of the River Plate Fresh Meat Company for the year 1889-91 shows that the year's operations were conducted at a loss of over $75,000. This company began business in 1883, when it exported 17,165 carcasses; in 1890 the number was 1,196,531. The first shipment of Argentine horned cattle to France was made in September of this year, and resulted in a heavy loss. Some English companies are said to be doing better than the one just referred to, but, on the other hand, others are known to be in financial difficulties.

With Argentina so many thousands of miles nearer Europe than is Australia, and with a soil and climate at least as favorable as the latter's for sheep-raising, it seems strange that the frozen-meat trade with the South Sea colonies should be profitable while it is so distinctly unprofitable with the former country. The explanation is to be largely found in the inferior condition of the Argentine sheep. They are, as a rule, half-bred merinos, while the New Zealand and Australian mutton is the flesh of the best South Downs. Moreover, there is a great prejudice against the Argentine article in the English market, so that it brings only about half the price of the Australian mutton. Added to this is the undoubted fact that the Argentine sheep are often diseased. The Board of Trade inspectors reported, in 1890, that the "increase of cases of disease among animals landed from abroad was largely due to the prevalence of scab among sheep, principally from the Argentine Republic." All which goes to show that natural advantages for successful farming cannot take the place of improved methods and careful oversight.

WILLIAM FERREL.

ON September 18, died at Maywood, Kansas, Prof. William Ferrel, the most eminent meteorologist that America has produced. If we were to say the most eminent meteorologist of the world, most of our readers, not even knowing Ferrel's name and never having heard of his works, would regard so high an estimate as extravagant; and if eminence includes general reputation, it would perhaps be unjust to make such a claim for a man who always lived simply and quietly, known to few of his countrymen, and, for many years after his work began, hardly known even to scientific men in Europe. But if eminence in science is to be measured by the effect produced on methods of investigation and by importance of results, unrivalled eminence in meteorology may be fairly claimed for Ferrel. Dové, who held the highest place among the older European meteorologists, accumulated a great store of facts concerning climatology; but he was not particularly successful in interpreting the facts. In more modern times, there are many earnest students in this science in the several countries of Europe, all contributing their good share to its progress, but none so strongly changing its attitude as Ferrel did. In this country, we have had Redfield and Espy, both able, although so different in their methods; both adding much to our understanding of atmospheric processes, but neither having the genius or knowledge of Ferrel, and neither reaching results so well demonstrated or so far-reaching as his. Loomis, a most persevering and successful investigator, whose results are often quoted to our credit, followed so purely and patiently the inductive method that he can hardly be said to have originated any broad theoretical views.

With more boldness and originality than any of his predecessors, and with more success than was reached by any except his followers in later years, Ferrel applied a knowledge of physics and mechanics and a mathematical method of treatment to the solution of problems in meteorology. In these lines he was certainly a genius, his love for mathematics being shown even when as a boy he drew geometrical diagrams with a pitchfork on the door of his father's barn in Virginia, and later in his wonderful judgment regarding the theoretical explanation of facts; but, as always with genius of the highest order, it was supported by hard and persevering study. He was not an "observer" in the common sense; he employed the observations of many others and reasoned well upon them. His writings do not teem with bibliographic references, although he read carefully and continuously; but the student may be sure that the few references given will lead him to records of the highest value. Ferrel's selection and discrimination among facts was as acute as among theories—he was seldom misled by errors of record or interpretation; but his great success was in the dis-

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covery and demonstration of theoretical explanations. The general circulation of the atmosphere around the earth never received anything like adequate treatment till he examined it; and, although his explanation was not complete, all subsequent work has followed essentially upon the lines that he first marked out. His theory of the mechanism of cyclonic storms was the first to give intelligent explanation of their whirling winds and central low pressure. His theory of the action of tornadoes has never been approached by any other; it is far superior to all that have been suggested. It is not, however, theoretical suggestions alone that we owe to him: he followed his suggestions with the most careful examination of their value, and thus not only established his views on firm foundations, but gave an example to others of the methods by which scientific meteorological investigations should be carried out. In this respect his work may be taken as a model, even though his mathematical form is criticised as inelegant by more expert mathematicians.

The most conspicuous novelty of principle that he introduced was the correct estimate of the deflective force by which bodies moving over the earth tend to depart from rectilinear paths, in consequence of the earth's rotation. This and its consequences, not properly introduced by his predecessors into meteorological theories, had left them all at fault; more than anything else, it was the solution that Ferrel found for many difficulties, but it is not a matter of which one can treat in a newspaper.

Ferrel's work, like his life, was aside from the paths of other men. His essays were inconspicuously published in scientific journals, some of which had a very narrow circulation. It was not till near the close of his life that he prepared a book for separate publication, his 'Popular Treatise on the Winds,' and that is too severely argumentative for general reading, although there is no work to which the student of meteorology may turn with greater confidence of good leadership. He never sought promotion. His advancement from schoolteaching in Tennessee to a place in the Nautical Almanac in 1857, his removal to the office of the Coast Survey in Washington in 1867, his selection for the office of professor in the Signal Office in 1882, were all unsolicited. In each of these offices, he pushed beyond the previous limits of knowledge. When with Winlock in the Nautical Almanac, he, better than any one else, demonstrated that a slight unexplained excess of the moon's velocity in its orbit was due to the lagging of the clock (the rotation of the earth) by which the moon's velocity was measured. In the Coast Survey under Peirce, he investigated our tides and invented a tide-predicting machine now in daily use and doing the work of thirty or forty men, which the visitor to Washington would do well to see in operation in the basement of the office. In the Signal Office, under Hazen, he performed the highest scientific work of the service, and stood for what a meteorologist should be—not an officer temporarily assigned to a new duty, but a lifelong and well-trained student of the science. He was a member of our National Academy of Sciences and of our best scientific societies, and an honorary member of the Austrian, German, and English Meteorological Societies. He never sought to force his theories on the public or even on the scientific world; he had a simple and trustful confidence that time would make correct judgment and determine between fleeting error and enduring truth.

Although living apart from the ways of the world, he was not careless of worldly matters, as many students are; he saved from his moderate salary, invested his savings wisely, and at his death, at the age of seventy-four, he was the possessor of a considerable fortune to leave to his relatives. He then said, "I regret to leave my friends, but that is all I regret," and so closed a pure life of simple greatness.

LIBRARIANS AT SAN FRANCISCO.

San Francisco, October 19, 1891.

The late conference of the American Library Association in this city was much quieter than the Fabyan conference. The attendance was less than half as great, consequently there was less rush, less of the enthusiasm of a crowd; the meetings, though a little unpunctual, were very orderly. One reason for the quietness may have been that little novelty was presented. The work of libraries in connection with schools, though of the highest importance and interest, has been discussed so often that little new can be said upon it; nor does it in general lead to that difference of opinion which so enlivens a meeting. No heresy in cataloguing or classification was presented to bring a score of objectors at once upon their feet. There was not even the annual report upon those subjects. On the other hand, it was stated that Mr. Rudolph of the San Francisco Free Library will shortly publish a new system of cataloguing that is far to surpass all its predecessors in utility and economy; but no description could be given pending application for a patent. The claims made for it are indeed startling. It almost does away with the use of the pen; card catalogues become a thing of the past; it solves the long-standing problem of a universal catalogue; it is speedy—books received in the morning, no matter how numerous, can be presented to the readers in a printed catalogue before night; it is cheap—what now costs $2 can be done for 25 cents. These statements were received with a little scepticism. The visiting librarians can understand how great mechanical improvements can be made; but as the chief expense in cataloguing is not for mechanical, but for intellectual work, they do not see how such saving is possible.

In library architecture the old material was threshed out a little; but the main interest centred in an exhibition and description of the plans for the interior arrangement, particularly the shelving, of the Library of Congress by an enthusiastic admirer, Mr. Linderfelt of Milwaukee. Unluckily, the necessity of adjournment cut short his account. It is evident, however, that the nation is to have a library of which it may be proud; one that will supply a model for large libraries in cities where the dearness of land forbids spreading the books over much surface and compels the erection of a lofty pile—forces the library to be, as it were, set up on end. The shelves of the Library of Congress are to be absolutely interchangeable all over the building; the books are to be brought from the stacks to the delivery desk and carried back to the shelves by an endless band which can fetch one from the remotest corner in less than half a minute, to the great saving of the muscles and hearts of attendants and of the temper of readers. The means for the admission of light and air and the exclusion of undue heat, it is hoped, will be equally admirable.

The opening paper of this session, by Mr. C. C. Soule, was a brief, clear, and full statement of the points on which librarians are agreed in respect to library architecture. It will be found most useful to put into the hands of architects who are employed to design libraries, and will dispel the common ignorance of the qualities necessary in such buildings, and render the blunders we now see in most of our American libraries inexcusable. It should be separately printed. Another paper which deserves the same treatment was Mr. D. V. R. Johnstone's report on binding and binderies, which might be called a manual of binding for the use of librarians. Mr. Gardner M. Jones's report on the dissemination of contagious diseases through the use of library books was based on the replies to circulars sent to many librarians. Its conclusion was that the danger is very slight, but that precautions should be taken in order to satisfy the fears of the nervous. Mr. W. E. Foster's defence of the public support of libraries, in answer to the Spencerian doctrines of the 'Plea for Liberty,' was a satisfactory reply. Access to the shelves by the users of libraries, on which papers were written by Herbert Putnam and W. H. Brett, who have introduced the greatest freedom at their libraries of Minneapolis and Cleveland, is one of the burning questions of the present day, taking the place which the use of fiction held in the early meetings of the Association. It would certainly have provoked a lively discussion had any discussion been permitted, but the tardiness of attendance, which by that time had been allowed to become extreme, left so short a time for the session that discussion was cut off. This was the defect of the whole convention. And yet discussion is the main object of such a body. Papers can be read in print. This should be borne in mind at the next meeting, and prompt attendance insisted on. No doubt it is unpleasant to begin a session with an important paper when only a dozen auditors are in their seats, but if this course be followed from the start, people will come early; if it is not, unpunctuality is a vice that grows apace.

The fact is, that sight-seeing proved too strong for business. The Association was received with a prodigality of hospitality such as, well as they have been treated in other cities, they have never before experienced. A committee of reception came from Sacramento to the very borders of the State to meet them, with offerings of flowers and fruit and fish, and from that time till they left they were the objects of unremitting attention. As far as weather was concerned, Nature treated them equally well; but it was not the right season to see the beauty of California. After four months of drought everything was faded, brown, dusty; yet there was much that was interesting or wonderful, and it was easy to see how lovely the country must be in the green winter and spring.

One announcement of extreme importance was made at this Convention. Mr. R. R. Bowker, under whose supervision the supplements to Mr. Leypoldt's excellent 'American Catalogue' have appeared, will prepare an 'American Bibliography of the Nineteenth Century,' designed to give the title, with suitable details, of every book published in America from 1800 to 1890, with perhaps a preliminary conspectus of the previous centuries. The form will be octavo, in place of the cumbersome quarto of the 'American Catalogue.' Mr. Bowker stipulates for a subscription of only 500 copies, at $100 each, which would give a guarantee fund of $50,000, though his experience with the 'American Catalogue' and its supplements leads him to estimate the expense at

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nearly $100,000. It is greatly to be hoped that as soon as the proposals are issued every library of size will hasten to give its subscription. Merely in the economy of service, such a bibliography will soon pay for itself; and as a matter of national pride, all must desire the publication of a work unequalled in any other nation. If the subscriptions come in quickly, the preliminary work will be begun at once, but with all possible haste the volumes could hardly be ready for issue till some years of the twentieth century have passed.

TREATY-MAKING POWER IN FRANCE.

PARIS, October 14, 1891.

THERE is no such thing as the French Constitution. The present republic was organized by several successive laws, which are constitutional laws. These constitutional and organic laws were voted by the National Assembly which sat at Versailles after the war of 1870–1871. The existing relations between France and Russia have drawn attention to the articles of these laws which relate to the right of making treaties. I will give the exact terms of these articles:

"The President of the Republic negotiates and ratifies treaties." (Constitutional Law of July 16, 1875, article 8.)

"During the session of the National Assembly, no treaty will be definitive if not approved by the Assembly." (This article, taken from the Constitution of the Republic of 1848, was in force during the sitting of the National Assembly.)

"After the adjournment of the National Assembly, the President of the Republic is bound to give cognizance of the treaties to the two chambers as soon as the interest and security of the State permit." (Constitutional Law of July 16, 1875, article 8.)

We have now clearly to deal only with the first and the third of these three articles. The President, in virtue of them, can make treaties and can make secret treaties, since he is bound to make them known to the Chambers only when the interest of the State requires it. The President of the French Republic has been thus invested with a really royal prerogative, and we must not wonder at it since the Constituant Chamber of Versailles was very monarchical in sentiment, and prepared a constitution which was intended to become the constitution of a monarchy, with as few changes as possible in its articles. Everybody knows how its intentions were defeated, how the revision clause was altered in Congress so as to set aside the question of the form of government—how, in fact, the republican form of government became definitive.

The Republic has now attained its majority—it has lasted twenty-one years; and we may calmly inquire if the Presidential prerogative was made too large in this matter of the right of making treaties. I, for one, do not think so; it is obvious that, placed as she is in Europe, France cannot dispense with the necessity of forming alliances and of entering into diplomatic arrangements which, at times, require secrecy. She has friends and she has enemies; her long history is a perpetual struggle for the conquest of a natural frontier—there is not a town, not a village, on her northern and on her eastern frontier which does not recall a battle, a siege. She is covered now on the north by the Belgian neutrality, but how long did she not have to struggle with the Spaniards in the Low Countries? In the part of the country which I inhabit in the summer, archery is still the amusement of the peasants, and this amusement dates from the time when the English and the French were disputing the valleys of the Somme and the Oise. Our eastern frontier has been constantly changing; Henri II. took the three bishoprics, Metz, Toul, and Verdun; the story of the annexation of Lorraine, of Alsace, of Franche-Comté is well known. The ecclesiastical estates which lay between our eastern frontier and the Rhine were attached to the Roman Empire by a very loose tie; the frontier of the Rhine has been the dream of every great French ruler. For the present, French ambition is reduced to the reconquest of the provinces lost in 1870–1871, and the whole policy of France will have this reconquest for its object.

The Triple Alliance was formed, under the influence of Prince Bismarck, in order to secure for Germany the conquests made in 1870. It is legitimate for France to try to confront this formidable constellation of Powers with another constellation, and she imagines that she has found in Russia the ally which is necessary to her. France and Russia, which are so distant in every respect, have one common fear and one common dislike; and nations are more united by their dislikes than by their affections. As the Triple Alliance was really formed chiefly in the interest of Germany, the Franco-Russian Alliance is chiefly directed against Germany. The French fleet would not have been sent to Cronstadt, and the demonstrations which followed this visit would never have been allowed by the Russian Government, if there had not been a desire to give a sort of visible form to an understanding which had been long and carefully prepared. It has been said that during the visit to Cronstadt some diplomatic document was prepared which gave to what may be called the moral alliance of France and Russia the character of a diplomatic alliance.

How far things are advanced, very few probably know. The Paris correspondents of the *Times* and the *Politische Correspondenz* have gone so far as to say that there is a formal treaty in a state of preparation. I have shown that President Carnot is perfectly free, under the terms of the Constitution, to make such a treaty on his own responsibility; but it is said that this responsibility is so great that there is a question of making a communication on the subject, not to the Chambers, but to the heads of the Parliamentary groups. The wisdom of such a policy is very doubtful, for if the information of the *Times* is correct, the Government would not communicate to these heads of the Parliamentary groups the tenor of the articles of the secret treaty, they would simply be informed of the existence of the treaty. But how could they form an opinion on the treaty if its articles remained unknown to them? How could they judge that the treaty is opportune or not, advantageous or not? Therefore, if a communication of this sort is made, it must be made in full, and in that case the articles of the treaty would probably not long remain a secret.

The Russian Government has not been slow to take advantage of the disposition of the French people by announcing a new Russian loan to be offered to the public, on the French market, at a comparatively very high price. Four hundred millions of francs will leave the country in the course of a few months and go to the banks of the Neva. *Punch* had a caricature showing a French peasant in the character of a bear-leader; in this case the peasant will not collect the money, he will give his own. France has systematically, for the last few years, sold Italian funds and replaced them with Russian funds. The operation, as it was undertaken merely for an idea, has so far proved successful. Russia's credit has gained all that Italian credit has lost. This half-reasoned and half-instinctive operation has been inspired in a great degree by the anger felt by the French people when they saw Italy bind herself hand and foot to the Triple Alliance. There is a notion in France that we had something to do with the liberation of Italy; we remember Magenta and Solferino; all the articles of M. Crispi cannot destroy the great facts of the past. There is, perhaps, more anger felt against Italy in a certain part of the nation than against Germany.

It is idle to deny it. France, who has been wounded in every way for twenty years, who felt in a sort of diplomatic isolation, and knew that a formidable combination of forces had been formed against her, feels now a sort of relief since Russia has shown interest in her position. There may be, there probably are, many illusions in this sentiment; all the hopes that are formed may never be realized; but the nation feels more at ease, it breathes more freely; the late manœuvres, which showed a real army of 120,000 men, well officered, well fed, well equipped, animated with the best spirit, have revived the confidence of the nation in itself. This sentiment is so strong that all the ministers in their speeches are obliged to express it in order to keep their popularity. The President himself, cautious as he is, has expressed it on various occasions. France is herself again; there is no serious opposition to the Government; the patriotic feeling has, for the present at least, become uppermost.

CHARLES STEWART PARNELL.

LONDON, October 13, 1891.

IN the career which has so suddenly closed with Mr. Parnell's death at the age of forty-five, there are elements of passion and vicissitude which might fit it to be the subject of a Greek tragedy. There were strange and sudden alternations of obscurity and fame, of unlooked-for success, and ruin in the hour of triumph. We shall doubtless within the next few months or years learn much that is new regarding his perplexing character and some unexplained passages in his life, and any view given of them now must be given with the knowledge that it is imperfect and subject to correction, as well as, when the facts shall have been more fully cleared up, to expansion. Still, it seems worth while, now that the impression he made upon English observers is still fresh and vivid, to try to convey that impression to those in America who have long felt curious about him, and desire to know how he struck persons with no special means of knowledge.

It has often been observed that he was not Irish, and that he led the Irish people with success just because he did not share their characteristic weaknesses. But it is equally true that he was not English. One always felt the difference between his temperament and that of the normal Englishman. The same remark applies to some other famous Irish leaders. Wolfe Tone, for instance, and Fitzgibbon were very unlike the usual type of Irishman—that is, the Irishman in whom the Celtic element predominates—but they were also unlike Englishmen. The Anglo-Irish Protestants, a strong race who have produced a number of remarkable men disproportionate to their ratio to the whole population of the United Kingdom, are a group by themselves, in whom some of the fire and impulsive-

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ness of the Celt has been blended with some of the firmness and tenacity of the Englishman. Mr. Parnell, however, though he might be reckoned to the Anglo-Irish type, was not a normal specimen of it. He was a man whom you could not refer to any category, peculiar both in his intellect and in his character generally.

His intellect was an eminently practical one. He showed no interest in speculation or in the pursuit of abstract truth He had no taste for literature, no love of knowledge for its own sake. He had read very little, and his speeches show no acquaintance either with history, beyond the commonest facts, or with any of the other subjects connected with politics. Very rarely did they contain a maxim or reflection of general applicability, apart from the particular topic he was discussing. Nor did he ever attempt to give to them the charm of literary ornament; all was dry, direct, and practical, without so much as a graceful phrase or a choice epithet. Sometimes, when addressing a great public meeting, he would seek to rouse them by vehement language, but though there might be a glow of suppressed passion, there were no flashes of imaginative light. Yet he never gave the impression of an uneducated man. His language was clear and grammatical; his taste was correct. It was merely that he did not care for any of those things which men of equal ability usually do care for. His only interests, outside politics, lay in mechanics and engineering and in the development of the material resources of his country. He took pains to manage his estate well, and was specially anxious to make something out of his quarries. Noticing that he was almost always occupied in examining and attacking the measures or the conduct of those who governed Ireland, many thought his intellect a purely critical one. This, however, was a mistake. Critical, indeed, it was, in a remarkable degree; keen, penetrating, stringently dissective of the arguments of an opponent, ingenious in taking advantage of any false step in administration or of admission imprudently made in debate. But it had also a positive and constructive quality. From time to time he would drop his negative attitude and sketch out plans of legislation which were always consistent and weighty, but notably deficient in imaginative warmth or color. They were the schemes rather of an able man of business, who saw the facts in a sharp, dry light, and never went beyond what the facts could be made to prove. And they were not only vigorous, but independent: he never seemed to be borrowing from others, although he freely used the help that others gave him in collecting facts or opinions. You felt that he had looked at things for himself, and had seen them as they actually were, in their true perspective, and not (like most Irishmen) through the mists of sentiment or party feeling. The impression which one of his more elaborate speeches made might be compared to that which one receives from a gray, sunless day with an east wind, a day in which everything shows clear, but also hard and cold. To call his mind a narrow one, as people sometimes did, was to wrong it. The range of his interests was doubtless limited; his intelligence was not. It never seemed unequal to any task it undertook, but, on the contrary, judged not only soundly, but also with an appreciation of the whole phenomena of the case, even those with which it had no personal sympathy. Still, his was a purely practical intellect. It was not original, not given to theorizing, not discursive; it did not rejoice in the exercise of thought for thought's sake, but felt itself to be merely a useful instrument for performing the work which the will required of it.

If, however, the intellect of the man could not be called interesting, his character was interesting in an eminent degree. It gave one many problems to solve, and could not easily be covered by any formulæ. An observer who followed the old method of ascribing to every one a single ruling passion, would have said that his ruling passion was pride. The pride was so strong that it almost extinguished vanity. He never seemed to seek occasions for display, frequently neglecting those which other men would have chosen, not seeming elated by the applause of crowds, and treating the House of Commons with equal coolness whether it cheered him or howled at him. He cared little for any social compliments or attentions, very seldom accepted an invitation to dinner, dressed with little care and often in clothes whose style and color seemed unworthy of his position. He was believed to be haughty and distant to his followers, and although some of them have denied this, the fact remains that scarcely any were admitted to intimacy, and that none of the ordinary signs of familiarity could be observed between him and them. Towards other he was sufficiently polite but warily reserved, showing no desire for the cultivation of friendship or, indeed, for any relations but those of business. Of some ordinary social duties, such as opening and answering letters, he was more neglectful than good breeding permits; and one did not know whether to ascribe this fault to indolence or to a superb disregard of everybody but himself. Such disregard he often showed in greater matters, taking no notice of attacks made upon him which he might have refuted, and sometimes declaring in the House of Commons that the opinions of Englishmen did not in the least affect him, since it was to his own country only that he recognized any responsibility. But he treated even his own countrymen in a somewhat disdainful and somewhat irresponsible way. He would sometimes remain away from Parliament for weeks together, even when important business was being considered, perhaps even vanishing altogether from public ken. Yet this lordly attitude and the air of mystery which surrounded him did not seem to be studied with a view to effect. They were due to his habit of thinking first and chiefly of himself. If he desired to indulge his inclinations, he indulged them. Some extremely strong motive of passion or interest might interpose to restrain this desire and stimulate him to an unwelcome exertion; but no respect for the opinion of others, nor fear of censure from his allies or friends, would be allowed to do so. This boundless self-confidence and independence contributed greatly to his success as a leader. They gave him faith in his own fortune, they inspired a conviction that obstacles whose reality his judgment recognized would ultimately yield to his will, an undismayed fortitude in crises which only once forsook him—in the moment of panic which followed the Phœnix Park murders of 1882. The confidence which he felt, or appeared to feel, reacted upon his party, and was perhaps the chief ground of their obedience to him and their belief in his superior wisdom. His calmness, his tenacity, his patience, his habit of listening quietly to every one, but deciding for himself, were all evidences of that resolute will which imposed itself upon the Irish masses no less than upon his Parliamentary following, and secured for him a loyalty in which there was little or nothing of personal affection.

In all these regards pride was a source of strength. In another direction, however, it proved a source of weakness. There are men in whom the want of moral principle, of noble emotions, or of a scrupulous conscience and nice sense of honor, is reinforced by respect for the opinion of their class or of the world. Such men may hold through life a tolerably upright course neither from the love of virtue nor because they are ambitious and anxious to stand well with those whom they aspire to influence or rule, but because, having a sense of personal dignity, combined with a quiet perception of the feelings of those around them, they are resolved to do nothing whereby their good name can be tarnished or an opening given to malicious tongues. But when pride towers to such a height as to become a law to itself, disregarding the judgment of others, it may not only lead its possessor into an attitude of defiance which the world resents, but may make him stoop to acts of turpitude which fatally discredit his character. Mr. Parnell was certainly an unscrupulous man. Without dwelling upon his relations to Mrs. O'Shea, his betrayal of Mr. Gladstone's confidences, and his reckless appeals during the last year of his life to the most inflammable elements in Ireland, there are facts enough in his earlier career to show that he had little regard for truth and little horror for crime. A revolution may extenuate some sins, but even in a revolution there are men (and sometimes the strongest men) whose moral excellence shines through the smoke of conflict and the mists of detraction. In Mr. Parnell's nature the moral element was imperfectly developed. He seemed cynical and callous; and it was probably his haughty self-reliance which prevented him from sufficiently deferring to the ordinary moralities of mankind. His pride, which ought to have kept him free from the suspicion of dishonor, made him feel dispensed from the usual restraints. Whatever he did was right in his own eyes, and no other eyes need be regarded. Phenomena somewhat similar were observable in Napoleon. But Napoleon was obviously not a gentleman in the common sense of the term. Mr. Parnell was a gentleman in that sense. He had the bearing, the manners, the natural easy dignity of a man of good birth who has always moved in good society. This made his departures from what may be called the inner and higher standard of gentlemanly conduct all the more remarkable.

He has been accused of a want of physical courage. It is certain that after the Phœnix Park murders he asked the authorities in England for police protection, being, not unnaturally, in fear for his life; and that he habitually carried fire-arms. But these facts are hardly sufficient to justify the charge. Moral courage he showed in a high degree during his whole public career, facing his antagonists with an unshaken front, even when they were most numerous and bitter. Though he intensely disliked imprisonment, the terms on which he came out of Kilmainham left no discredit upon him. He behaved with perfect dignity under the attacks of the *Times* in 1887, and in the face of what turned out to be the forgeries of Richard Pigott—forgeries which the bulk of the English upper classes greedily swallowed. With this courage and dignity, however, there was little to show magnanimity. He seldom said a generous word, or showed himself responsive to such a word spoken by another. Accustomed to conceal his feelings, except in his most excited moments, he rarely revealed, but he certainly cherished, vindictive sentiments. He never forgave either Mr. W. E. Forster or Mr. Gladstone for

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having imprisoned him in 1881; and though he stood in some awe of the latter, whom he considered the only really formidable antagonist he had ever striven with, he bore him a grudge which smouldered under the reconciliation of 1886 and leapt into flame in the manifesto of November, 1890.

The union in Mr. Parnell of intense passion with strenuous self-control struck all who watched him closely, though it was seldom that passion so far escaped as to make the contrast visibly dramatic. Usually he was cold, grave, deliberate, repelling advances with a sort of icy courtesy. He hardly ever lost his temper in the House of Commons, even under the sarcasms of his former friends, though the low, almost hissing tones of his voice sometimes betrayed an internal struggle. But during the electoral campaign in Kilkenny, in December, 1890, when he was fighting for his life, he was more than once so swept away by anger that those beside him had to hold him back from jumping off the platform into the crowd to strike down some one who had interrupted. Suspended for a moment, his mastery of himself quickly returned. Men were astonished to observe how, after some of the stormy passages in the Committee Room No. 15 debates in December, 1890, he would address quietly, perhaps lay his hand upon the shoulder of, those who had just been denouncing him, and on whom he had poured all the vitriol of his fierce tongue. As this could not have been good-nature, it must have been either calculated policy or a sort of scorn for those whom he had been wont to deem his subjects. Kindliness was never ascribed to him; nor had he, so far as could be known, a single intimate friend.

Oratory is the usual avenue to leadership in a democratic movement, and Mr. Parnell is one of the very few who have arrived at power neither by that road nor by military success. So far from having by nature any of the gifts or graces of a popular speaker, he was at first conspicuously deficient in them, and became at last effective only by constant practice, and by an intellectual force which asserted itself through commonplaceness of language and an unimpassioned delivery. He had no fluency, and acquired even moderate ease only after four or five years. His voice was not powerful nor delicate in its modulations, but it was clear, and the enunciation was deliberate, distinct, quiet when the matter was ordinary, slow and emphatic when an important point arrived. With very little action of the body, there was often an interesting and obviously unstudied play of feature. So far from possessing any of that florid rhetoric or imaginative fertility which are supposed to characterize Irish eloquence, his speeches were singularly plain, bare and dry. Neither had they any humor. If they ever raised a smile, which seldom happened, it was by some touch of sarcasm or adroit thrust at a point left unguarded by an adversary. Their merit lay in their lucidity, in their aptness to the matter in hand, in the strong, practical sense which ran through them, coupled with the feeling that they came from one who led a nation, and whose forecasts had often fulfilled themselves. They gave the impression of having been carefully prepared, and were usually made from pretty full notes, but the preparation had been given rather to the matter and the arrangement than to the diction, which had rarely any ornament or literary finish. Of late years he spoke infrequently, whether from indolence, or weak health, or because he thought little was to be done in the face of a hostile majority, now that the tactics of obstruction had been abandoned. When he interposed without preparation in a debate which had arisen unexpectedly, he was short, pithy, and eminently practical; indeed, nothing more characterized him than his talent for hitting the nail on the head, a talent which always commands attention in deliberative assemblies. No one saw more clearly or conveyed in terser language the course which the circumstances of the moment required; and as his mastery of Parliamentary procedure and practice was second only to that of Mr. Gladstone, his advice carried great weight. It would, indeed, be no exaggeration to say that during the sessions of 1889 and 1890 he was distinctly the second man in the House of Commons, surpassed, of course, in debating power by four or five others, but inferior to Mr. Gladstone alone in the interest which his speeches excited and in the impression they produced. With this access of influence his attitude and the spirit of his policy seemed to rise and widen. There was less of that hard attorneyism which had marked his criticisms of the Tory Government and their measures up till March, 1880, and of the Liberal Government and their measures during the five following years. He seemed to grow more and more to the full stature of a statesman, with constructive views and a willingness to make the best of the facts as he found them. Yet even in this later and better time one note of greatness was absent from his speeches: there was nothing genial and generous and elevated about them. They never soared into an atmosphere of lofty feeling, worthy of the man who was by this time seen to be leading his nation to victory, and who had begun to be admired and honored by one of the two great historic English parties.

He was not only well versed in the rules of Parliamentary procedure, but also a consummate master of Parliamentary tactics. Very soon after he entered the House of Commons he detected its weak point, and perfected a system of obstruction which so destroyed the efficiency of its time-honored modes of doing business that new sets of rules, each more stringent than the preceding, had to be devised between 1878 and 1888. The skill with which he handled his small but well-disciplined battalion was admirable. He was strict with individuals, requiring absolute obedience to the party rules, but ready to gratify any prevailing current of feeling when he saw that this could be done without serious harm to the cause. More than once, when English members who happened to be acting with him on some particular question pressed him to keep his men quiet and let a division be taken at once, he answered that they were doubtless right in thinking that the moment for securing a good division had arrived, but that he must not muzzle his followers when they wanted to have their fling. The best proof of the tact with which he ruled a section comprising many men of brilliant talents lies in the fact that there was never any serious revolt, or movement towards revolt, against him until the breach of 1890 between himself and the Liberal party had made it clear that his continued leadership would mean defeat at the polls, and the postponement, perhaps for many years, of home rule.

His own political views and tendencies furnished matter for much discussion among those who studied him closely. Many, both among Englishmen and among Irishmen, held that he was at heart a Conservative, valuing strong government and attached to the rights of property. They predicted that if an Irish Parliament had been established, as proposed in 1886, and an Irish cabinet formed to administer the affairs of the island, Mr. Parnell would have been the inevitable and somewhat despotic leader of the reactionary party. His coöperation with the agrarian agitators from 1879 onwards was in this view merely a politic expedient to gain support for the home-rule campaign. For this theory there is much to be said. Though he came to lead a revolution, and was willing, as appeared in the last few months of his life, to appeal to the genuine revolutionary party, he was not by temper or conviction a revolutionist. The Fenians, and those remains of Fenianism out of whom the secret insurrectionary and dynamitard societies were formed, never liked or trusted him. The passion which originally carried him into public life was hatred of England, and a wish to restore to Ireland either her national independence or at least her own Parliament. But he was no democratic leveller, and still less inclined to those Socialistic doctrines which the section influenced by Mr. Davitt has espoused. He did not desire the "extinction of landlordism," and would probably have been a restraining and moderating force in an Irish legislature. That he was genuinely attached to his native country need not be doubted. But his patriotism had little of a sentimental quality, and seemed to spring as much from dislike of England as from love of Ireland.

It may excite surprise that a man such as has been sketched, with so cool a judgment and so complete a self-control, a man (as his previous career had shown) able to endure temporary reverses in the confidence of ultimate success, should have committed the fatal error, which blasted his fame and shortened his life, of clinging to the headship of his party when prudence counselled a retirement. A retirement need not have been of long duration. It can hardly be doubted that if he had, after the sentence of the Divorce Court in November, 1890, gone abroad for eight or ten months, allowing some one to be chosen in his place chairman of the Irish party for the session, he might thereafter have returned to the House of Commons, and might, after some little further loss of time, have naturally recovered the leadership. Unfortunately, the self-reliant pride which had stood him in good stead so often before, made him refuse to bow to the storm. Probably he could not understand the indignation which the proceedings in the divorce case had awakened in England—being morally somewhat callous, and knowing that his offences were no secret to the House of Commons. He had been accustomed to despise English opinion, and had on some former occasions suffered nothing for doing so. He bitterly resented both Mr. Gladstone's letter and the movement to depose him which it roused in his own party. He had so often before found defiant resolution lead to success that he determined again to rely on the maxim which has led so many to ruin, just because it had so much truth in it—"*l'audace, encore de l'audace, toujours de l'audace.*" The affront to his pride disturbed the balance of his mind, and made him feel as if the humiliation of a temporary retirement would destroy the prestige of his haughty self-confidence. It was soon evident that he had overestimated his power in Ireland, but when the schism began there were many besides Lord Salisbury—many in Ireland as well as in England—who predicted triumph for him. Nor must it be thought that it was pure selfishness which made him resolve rather to break with the English Liberals than allow the National cause to be guided by any hands but his own. He was a sort of fatalist, and had that confidence in his star and his mission which often belongs to minds in which superstition

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and a morbid taint may be discerned. There were others who believed that no one but himself could hold the Irish party together and carry the Irish cause to triumph. No wonder that this belief should have filled and disordered his own brain.

The swiftness of his rise is a striking instance of the power which intellectual concentration and a strenuous will can exert, for he had no adventitious help from wealth or family connection or the reputation of having suffered for his country. *Ergo vivida vis animi pervicit.* He was only thirty, with no experience of affairs and no gift of speech; but the quality that was in him of leading and ruling men, of taking the initiative, of seeing and striking at the weak point of the enemy, and fearlessly facing the brunt of an enemy's attack, made itself at once felt, and he rose without effort to the first place. With some intellectual limitations and great moral faults, he will stand high in the long and melancholy series of Irish leaders, far less noble than Grattan, far less attractive than O'Connell, far less brilliant than either of them, yet entitled to be remembered as one of the most remarkable figures of our time. O. D.

Correspondence.

GETTING READY FOR THE STORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is interesting to note, as an illustration of the general desire to escape as far as possible the losses which are likely to be incurred by every one, except the silver-mine-owners, in the too probable event of a depreciation of current money, that a leading law stationer here now prints and keeps in stock forms for ordinary bonds and real-estate mortgages, providing for payment in "lawful gold coin of the United States of America of the present standard of weight and fineness," as corporation loans have been made payable for some years past. When spoken to on the subject last winter, the stationer referred to thought the demand for such forms would be slight, but now it is large enough to induce him to provide the supply. The only pity is that the movement did not start earlier. Were all contracts made payable in gold, the silver-men would have no power to threaten the country with a sudden fall in the value of the circulating medium.

Charles C. Einney.

Philadelphia, October 19, 1891.

NOT A FOREGONE CONCLUSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of the 8th of October, you assert that "the minister is not considered as a learner; his views are fixed." Is not this dictum utterly at variance with the theory and practice of an educated ministry? Does the English Church, for instance, bind the hands of her clergy at the outset, and forbid them to study the "great doctrines" and "great questions"? Are the scholarly men of that communion, whether conservative or liberal, breaking their ordination vows? On the contrary, every Episcopal clergyman has solemnly promised to be diligent in study.

But, it will be answered, his study is confined within a narrow range; he has lost his freedom. I fail to see it. Certainly he is not at liberty to teach anything contrary to the doctrine (not doctrines) of the Church. But the very vow that he has taken, "to banish and drive away from the Church all erroneous and strange doctrines," requires him to study the writings and understand the teaching of those who are outside the Church. The defender of the faith must meet the enemy, if he be an enemy, in the open field. Whatever "the theory of the world" may be, certainly it is not the theory of the Church that her clergy are not learners, nor does she require of the young man of twenty-five that he be master of all knowledge. F. L. P.

Cambridge, Mass., October 16, 1891.

[Our correspondent is mistaken. We did not "assert" what he says we did, but spoke only of "the actual conception of the ministerial character." Nor does what he says change our conviction that, both historically and literally, the vows of ordination leave no room for divergence from the creed of the Church. The promise to be "diligent in study," and to "banish and drive away all erroneous and strange doctrine," is subsidiary to the main vow to teach and defend the "doctrine and sacraments . . . as this Church hath received the same." Does our correspondent think it a sign of open-mindedness that "erroneous and strange doctrines" are to be studied only to be banished and driven away? Are they not, *ipso facto*, condemned in advance? Suppose a clergyman should find them, or any of them, not "erroneous," but true? If a candidate should tell his bishop that he left the question open whether they were "erroneous" or not, would that not be considered the equivalent of the "great Crime or Impediment" which ought to prevent such a man from becoming a priest?

We make no assertions about what is or ought to be the actual practice; but we do assert that the wide liberty which many men see provided for in the ordination vows of the different Protestant churches, is an afterthought. The framers of the creeds and the vows did not contemplate it or the need of it. It is not legitimately to be inferred from their exhortation to study. That exhortation may be considered the Nemesis of Protestantism, or its unconscious principle of salvation, as one chooses to look at it. At the Reformation, "study" meant separation from Rome; now it often appears to mean separation from organized Protestantism.—Ed. Nation.]

THE SCHOOL-BOOK COMBINATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To produce good books, it is necessary to secure good authors and editors, and they must be liberally paid. Many books have to be made before the good one is produced. It costs time and money to try these experiments. The business must yield a fair profit to attract men of the necessary ability to engage in it. Important as it is to produce good books, it is no less important that they should be used in the schools. To insure this we must elect to the school boards competent men and women, who know the value of books, and can be relied upon to secure them, no matter how active and unscrupulous may be the influences used against them.

If a great combination, controlling four-fifths of all the books in the country, publicly boasts that it will crush all publishers that do not join it, by giving their own new books without charge in exchange for those of other houses in the schools, and employing all the means that wealth can control for that purpose, is it not time that the people should begin to think what effect this will have upon the schools if accomplished?

We have given the best years of our life to trying to produce good books and place them on the market, by honorable methods, at a fair price. We must leave the result of our efforts to the judgment of others. The people have the whole question in their own hands. If they think it is safe and best for their schools to have the publishing and supplying of all their books absolutely in the control of a single house, all that is necessary will be to take new books for old ones, free of charge, for a few years. Such a course will drive all the educational publishers from the field, and the political wire-puller will have it wholly to himself.

Should the American Book Company, by even-exchanging the books of their competitors in the schools, narrow down the holdings of other houses so that it will be impossible for them to continue business at a profit, it is easy to see that the day when these houses will have to relinquish the field will not be far distant. When the American Book Company have the entire business in their own hands, it may be natural for them to sit down and calculate how much it has cost to get rid of their competitors, and to say to themselves, "Now it is only fair that the public, who have had the benefit of these free books so long, should pay for them." The pay may be exacted in several ways—by raising the price of their books gradually; by giving less discounts; by cheapening the cost of manufacture; by discouraging the sale of their best books, which pay large copyrights to the authors, etc., etc. When, however, they have assessed this amount on the public, is it in accord with human nature to expect that they will stop there? But it may be said that it will not be safe for them to make too much profit on the sale of their books; the public will rebel, and publish for themselves, by States or otherwise.

Now, it is well for us all to look this question fairly in the face in order to comprehend the difficulties to be overcome. In the first place, it requires not only special talent and a long term of service on the part of publisher and editor, but a large outlay of money and time, to produce a good book, under the most favorable conditions. After the American Book Company shall have driven from the field all the trained men in either department, it will not be easy to establish independent houses. There will not only be a lack of ability and experience, but it will require at least $2,000,000 of direct capital to establish houses as good as the present ones. After five years' control of the whole field, the American Book Company will be twice as powerful as at present. Now it is one of the strongest political organizations in the country. It has important interests in every town and city in the land. It has not only a large corps of able and trained agents travelling all the time, but sub-agents and local politicians in all important centres. It is looking after legislation in the various States, and lately we have seen many laws framed for binding them to adopt books for long periods.

Notwithstanding the great power of this remarkably developed political organization and the millions at its command from its vast monopoly, it will lose its terrors when the American people fully realize its evil influence on the educational institutions of the country.

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Let the press, the teachers, and the committees jealously guard their rights, and punish by exposure and loss of patronage any infringements, and timid capital will keep to its own legitimate channels. It is not simply a question between rival publishing houses, but one of vital importance to the schools.

EDWIN GINN.

BOSTON, October 21, 1891.

A JAPANESE LIBRARIAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A young gentleman from Japan, who had had some training in the Imperial Library at Tokio, was sent to this country two or three years ago and placed under my charge by the Japanese Minister of Public Instruction, for the purpose of acquiring a knowledge of the methods of administering libraries in this country. He was for a large part of a year under my constant oversight in Cambridge, and then visited, with my introduction, some of the principal libraries of this country and of Europe, previous to his return to his own country. By virtue of the constant reports which he had monthly made when absent, and because of the excellent examination which he passed, he was, soon after his return, placed in charge of the Tokio Library in the Uyeno Park in Tokio, the chief public repository for books in Japan.

I have felt that a letter which I have recently received from him, involving some of his experiences in conducting his library on methods based on our own, might prove interesting to your readers. JUSTIN WINSOR.

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY, Oct. 22.

"TOKIO, September 24, 1891.

"DEAR SIR: . . . I am very much ashamed to say that I have hardly done even one-hundredth of what I intended to do when I came back from Europe. But this is not a fault of myself alone. . . . Still, I have printed two publications, *i. e.*, 'Guide to the Tokio Library' and an 'Essay on the Improvement of the Tokio Library,' both in Japanese, besides doing the usual work of the Library; and I am, of course, trying to do more, and expect to make our Library one of the best in the world. I sent to you an extract of my report some time ago, which you will kindly glance over. I am now compiling an index of the author catalogue of the Imperial University Library, and nothing is more valuable and useful to me than the index of the Catalogue of Harvard University Library, which you have kindly sent to us, sheet by sheet. I have prepared a paper introducing the Tokio Library to the notice of American libraries, incidentally touching all other libraries in Japan. I wish to give you an extract of it:

"The Tokio Library is national in its character, and is maintained by the State and by the Copyright Act, which gives it a copy of every book, pamphlet, etc., published in the empire. The Library was established in 1872 with about 70,000 volumes. In 1886 it was removed to the Uyeno Park. The place is away from the bustle of the city, with fresh air and evergreens around it. The reading-room accommodates about 200 readers, and is divided into three compartments, viz.: 'special,' 'ladies',' and 'ordinary.' We have two sets of catalogues, viz.: a card catalogue and printed catalogue, both classified. It is now proposed to improve them upon the principle of a dictionary catalogue. A system of lending out books was added three years ago, something like that of the Königliche Bibliothek of Berlin. The Library now contains 97,550 Japanese and Chinese books and 25,559 European books, besides about 100,000 of duplicates, popular books, etc., which are not used. The average number of books used is 337,262 a year. By applying 'the principle of multiplication of utility,' the average turn-over of each book used is about 2.5+, and, by dividing by the total issue of books, the average cost of each issue is 2 3 ten. By comparing the number of books used and the classes of books read during the last year, we see that 21.5 per cent. are in history, geography, etc., 21 per cent. in literature and language; 17.2 per cent. in science and medicine, and 13.4 per cent. in law and politics. This comparison gives some idea of the inclination of the reading public.

"The Library of the Imperial University comprises all the books belonging to the University. These books are solely for the use of the instructors, students, and pupils, no admittance being granted to the general public. The library contains 77,991 European books and 101,217 Japanese and Chinese books.

"As to other small libraries, there are only eight public and ten private libraries in different parts of the empire. The books contained in them are 66,912 Japanese and Chinese and 7,531 European books, with only 43 911 visitors!

"Besides these, in most towns of respectable size there are generally two or three small circulating libraries which contain books consisting chiefly of light literature and historical works popularly treated. The proprietors of these libraries or their assistants go about from patron to patron every day, leaving with him the books he requires. These books are loaned for a small sum, which varies according to the quality of books and also length of time during which the books are to be kept. There are about sixty libraries of this description in the city of Tokio alone.

"The past summer has been very warm in Japan, and the farmers are very glad, as it has given hope of good crops this autumn. . . .

"Yours sincerely,
"I. TANAKA."

THE LATE DR ROBERT LOWELL AND NEWFOUNDLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reason for the Rev. Dr. Lowell's leaving Newfoundland was very creditable to him. In 1847 there was a severe famine in Bay Roberts (Conception Bay), where he was stationed as a clergyman of the Church of England. The people lived for some weeks on a scanty supply of potatoes alone, and, when these were exhausted, were obliged to eat damaged oatmeal. It took a long time in those days to communicate with St. Johns. Dr. Lowell labored among the people both as clergyman and physician (he being both), and shared their privations. His health gave way under the strain, and he was obliged to leave Newfoundland to regain it. If I am not mistaken, he did not return directly to the United States, but spent some time first at Bermuda. I give the foregoing from the remembrance of a conversation with Dr. Lowell and his wife about sixteen months ago.

I find no mention of the famine at Bay Roberts in 1847 in any of the histories of Newfoundland. Seasons of scarcity, when affecting only limited districts, were probably too common to attract special attention from outsiders. Dr. Lowell had nothing to do either with the politics or with the material development of the island, and it is these things which have chiefly concerned the historians. He led there the quiet life of a scholar and student of human nature, and was known to few besides "planters" and simple fishermen. There is little, however, in Newfoundland history that is better worth knowing than that a man so gifted in mind and beautiful in character once lived for four or five years in Conception Bay, and that all his life afterwards (I had his own word for it) he loved Newfoundland and Newfoundlanders.

JOHN C. COZENS.

AMSTERDAM, N. Y., October 20, 1891.

THE LATE GENERAL WILD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent remarks on the eulogy business find an echo in many a disgusted bosom. "De mortuis nil nisi bonum" is an excellent maxim, no doubt, but with regard to one at least of the biographees so profusely eulogized in some of the daily papers, one cannot but recall that other plain English saying, "Least said, soonest mended." On the other hand, in the same journals which report these "funeral orgies" is given, among "other deaths," a bare notice of the passing away of a man of another sort, whose memory calls up a thrill or a tear among older readers familiar with his record.

Brig.-Gen. Edmund A. Wild of Brookline, Mass., died at Medellin, Colombia, South America, September 4, at the age of sixty-five years. As a young man he was a graduate of one of the medical schools of his day, and followed the profession of physician in the Turkish service and elsewhere with honor. Profession and all else were thrown aside without doubt or hesitation when our civil war broke out, and he entered our volunteer army and took his place among the leaders of our war for freedom. In one of the early encounters he lost an arm, but continued to serve, and earned the respect and admiration of all who knew him as a soldier. He was one of those uncompromising men about whose character and onward course no one could ever doubt. Impaired health and a maimed body were probably the only impediments to his rising beyond the rank of Brigadier-General.

An instance showing his sense of commercial honor will give a touch of his quality in that particular. He returned from the war minus an arm and almost reduced to a living skeleton, and, seeking neither office nor pension, went West to earn his living in mining, a few friends making up a moderate sum of money which they invested in the mine of which he took charge, he having also a share in the adventure. Mining ventures sometimes give enormous returns, but often prove failures, as this one did. Gen. Wild almost disappeared from sight for some years, keeping in communication only with the nearest circle of his friends at the East; but at last a stroke of good fortune overtook him, and the first his partners in the old mine heard from him was an offer to buy back the shares which they had taken in it, at the original cost, to be paid for out of money he had made in a new and successful venture.

No doubt there are other such occurrences taking place from time to time, but they are so rare as to make it worth while to record this characteristic instance in a life of noble courage and self-devotion. Surely there should be something more than the inscription in some country churchyard, "Died, Edmund Wild, 1891." SENEX.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. will publish directly 'The Shield of Love,' a novel by B. L. Farjeon.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will have ready next month 'Countess Erika's Apprenticeship,' from the German of Ossip Schubin, by Mrs. A. L. Wister.

'The Anarchists: A Picture of Civilization at the Close of the Nineteenth Century,' from the German of John Henry Mackay; and 'Holiday Stories,' by Stephen Fiske, are about to be issued by Benj. R. Tucker, Boston.

'Elton Hazelwood: A Memoir,' by "Henry Vane" (Francis George Scott), is in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

A text-book of 'Rudimentary Ethics,' by George M. Steele, LL.D., will bear the imprint of Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

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Ginn & Co. have in press 'Short Courses of Reading in English Literature,' by Prof. C. T. Winchester of Wesleyan University.

A translation of Herbart's 'Allgemeine Pädagogik,' by Henry M. Felkin, has been edited and furnished with an introduction by Oscar Browning, and will be brought out next month by D. C Heath & Co., Boston.

Macmillan & Co. are going to reprint the Lincoln's Inn sermons of the late F. D. Maurice in a new edition of six volumes. We have received the first volume, containing twenty sermons in 305 pages.

Dulness is the note of the selection entitled 'William Morris: Poet, Artist, Socialist,' made from his writings by Francis Watts Lee (New York: Humboldt Publishing Company). One feels that it is not alone the vagueness of the ideal, but the language, which produces such a soporific effect. Mr. Morris's archaistic style, applied to socialistic discussion, resembles a political economy in words of one syllable for infants. Infantile is the whole quarrel with machinery and invention, save (with a halting exception) the power loom; the horror of a surplus in production, like nature's abhorrence of a vacuum; the denunciation of trade; and all the suggestions of a way out of overpopulation, congested districts, too constant and inconstant employment, unequal distribution of wealth and leisure, and the other standing evils of the struggle for existence. Nor are Morris's socialistic hymns or "chants" at the end of the volume any more inspiring than his prose argumentation. The "Socialists," too, who will sing them are not Lancashire millhands or East End paupers.

Mr. Andrew Lang himself points out, in the preface to his 'Blue Poetry Book' (Longmans), the striking proportion of Scotch verse, as if to redress the balance of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury,' where he thinks it odd that the ratio should be but one in ten. He overlooks here the editor's aim to make an *English* anthology; and in giving so much Scotch dialect to his "lads and lassies," Mr. Lang overlooks the influence of his own nationality in guiding him "by recollections of what particularly pleased himself in youth." He has another excuse, however, that he wanted poems of action and adventure; and on another side he sought poems "full of witchery and music," which alone explains his selections from Poe. Longfellow and Bryant are the only other American poets thus honored. We have no fault to find with Mr. Lang's defence of his inserting pieces to some extent above the child's comprehension—and there are plenty of them; but he seems to us to reach a climax when he ends his volume with Wordsworth's allusive sonnet on the departure of Sir Walter Scott from Abbotsford for Naples! The particular note of British patriotism, for which Campbell has been well drawn upon, will ring false on this side of the Atlantic. On the whole, we prefer Mr. Cabot Lodge's 'Ballads and Lyrics'—especially because it has no pictures, and such pictures!

Mr. Laurence Hutton, whose work on the 'Literary Landmarks of London' put all pilgrims to the shrines of literature in his debt, has performed the same pious service for the other most notable literary city of Britain, "the gray metropolis of the North," toward which perhaps as many American lovers of literature bend their steps. His 'Literary Landmarks of Edinburgh' (Harpers) is a thin little volume, but it contains much matter about the local habitations of the literary worthies of Scotland; it is amply illustrated with both portraits and views of streets and houses, and it is made entertaining with anecdote and kept so by the genuine interest of the guide in what he has to point out. He has made one identification that is of special significance, the house in which Scott saw Burns and heard him speak. It was at Adam Fergusson's that this famous meeting took place, but there has been doubt as to where Fergusson then lived. Mr. Hutton identifies the house as Sciennes House, on the north side of Braid's Place, two doors from the street called "The Sciennes," and he gives for the first time a photograph of it. In the rest of the volume there is nothing to be singled out, but there is much that is taking, and occasionally we are reminded of some curious fact, such as that Scott, who placed a commemoration stone over the grave of "Helen Walker, the humble individual who practised in real life the virtues with which fiction has invested the imaginary character of Jeanie Deans," neglected entirely the graves of his parents. His mother lies "in an unmarked and unknown grave" near St John's Church, and his father's place of interment is to be identified only by the register, which describes it as "at the foot of the stone marking the foot of the grave of Alexander Grant." It is said that the Town Council contemplates putting a memorial here.

The pleasant meandering journey which has been a source of mild entertainment to readers of *Harper's* under the title of "The Warwickshire Avon," is now issued by the Harpers with the modest sub-title of 'Notes by A. T. Quiller-Couch.' The sub-title defines the character of the volume best, and not the least attraction of these "notes" consists of the illustrations by Alfred Parsons. Text and cuts run on together on fine paper and through good margins, making an inviting volume at the first glance; but on reading it one is disappointed because the author lacks the touch of beauty and charm of style which are so essential in sketches of river scenery. The chief quality of the volume, therefore, is of the guide-book variety, and lies in what is told us of localities merely, with the advantage of the pictorial collaboration of Mr. Parsons to eke out the unpictorial letter-press. It is agreeable enough; but one knows he is idling his time, and in books meant for idleness even that is a defect.

The issue of the third and fourth volumes of the invaluable Cambridge Shakspere (Macmillan) gives us opportunity to direct attention again to this singularly beautiful and cheap edition, desirable equally for students of Shakspere and for ordinary home use. One volume will be published quarterly until the entire set of nine volumes is completed, and the low price at this rate of issue enables any one who wishes a really good copy of Shakspere to obtain it. The notes, which are purely textual, furnish new illustration of the painstaking thoroughness and indefatigable scholarship of the editor, Mr. Aldis Wright.

The seventh volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell) continues his encyclopædic history of our literature from Caxton to Coverdale, with the same breadth and detail already characterized by us in the notice of previous issues. A considerable space is occupied with an account of the Scotch poets, in which much information about them and their writings, not accessible in so convenient a shape elsewhere, may be found; and on the English side of the border the scholars who revived learning at the universities, the early historians, and the writers of the Reformation, are attended to. The scope of the work may be judged by the fact that in this comparatively obscure period Prof. Morley makes special mention of upwards of seventy authors, besides those who are classed as minor and anonymous. There are the usual valuable bibliographies at the end.

Among the series of University Extension Manuals, Prof. Knight's 'Philosophy of the Beautiful, being Outlines of the History of Æsthetics' (Charles Scribner's Sons), deserves special attention because of the novelty of its scheme. The author confines himself to an account of what thinkers on the nature of the beautiful have given as their conclusions, from the time of Plato and Aristotle, and has thus made what is really a history of opinion on the subject. Owing to the nature of the subject, much of this opinion is fragmentary, and at times is hardly more than suggestive, but these portions of the work are hardly less valuable than those which reproduce elaborate theories such as Schiller's and Hegel's. The predominant strain of thought is naturally Platonizing, but the materialists have justice done to them in stating their views. Any one who is interested in the fundamental truths that underlie art in all its forms, whether plastic or literary, will find here a mine of information and suggestion, and especially that consensus of thought which is most profitable for conviction or conversion, as the case may be. Prof. Knight surveys the whole literature of the subject, but, as he remarks, his familiarity with minor writers is naturally greatest in his own language, and consequently the view of British opinion occupies more than one-third of the volume. America, including Canada, is represented, we regret to say, by only fourteen pages, covering the period since 1815, and, except for Emerson, the section is quite barren of names of great distinction.

A useful little volume on 'Dante and his Ideal,' by Herbert Baynes (Macmillan), contains a sketch of the scheme and meaning of the 'Divine Comedy,' sufficiently illustrated from the other works and the Life of Dante, which will serve very well as an introduction for ordinary readers, and may profitably be consulted by them before undertaking the perusal of the work itself. It is very free from abstract statement and vague speculation, and does not undertake to deal with the dark portions of the text. It is, in fact, a sort of lecture, such as might be prepared for a popular audience, and is as little difficult as the nature of the subject permits; but it is to be regretted that the author does not translate all he quotes from the Italian and German. We take pleasure in recommending it to those who may wish to make acquaintance with the great poem of Italy and the Middle Age, which, unlike most great poems, does require an introduction of this sort to remove difficulties from the path. A frontispiece of Giotto's portrait of Dante ornaments the volume.

An edition of the tenth book of Quintilian, by Principal Peterson of University College, Dundee, has just been published by the Clarendon Press (Macmillan). It is a large volume, and the text is preceded by essays upon the author himself, the style, language, and nature of his book, with the place it holds in literary criticism, and upon the manuscripts. The explanatory notes, printed on the same page with the text, are extremely full and excellent in quality; the critical notes follow in an appendix. The editor ascribes considerable importance to two Harleian MSS. in the British Museum; of one of these (No. 2664) he gives a collation never before published, and a specimen page in collotype. Heretofore the only worthy edition of this book in English has been that of an American scholar, the late Prof. Frieze. The present editor has availed himself of the best works by Germans, and his

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book may be highly commended to students and scholars.

Mrs. Dyson's 'Story of the Trees' (Thomas Nelson & Sons) is a pretty full description of English trees, with some account of a few exotic ones, intermingled with scraps of history, mythology, and moral reflections. It is evidently written with the hope of teaching a good deal of the knowledge of trees to children so young that they will not be contented with the oak unless King Charles is hidden in it, or the ash unless they can imagine the eagle and the squirrel of the ancient Scandinavians in its branches, and shudder at the serpent which gnaws its root. The book contains much that is interesting about trees, and has a good picture of an English oak and of a Himalayan deodar, and perhaps enough of William Tell, Wat Tyrrel, Diomedes, Odin, and other personages, historical and mythical, to make the botanical part of it digestible.

Another book of the same general kind is Miss Bergen's 'Glimpses at the Plant World' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). It is addressed to "Dear Children"; but the language is often rather involved and above their comprehension. It glances at the field of fungi, mosses, ferns, and flowers; has something about the transportation of pollen by bees and butterflies, and in the last chapters passes from "Jack" and his dandelion to plumed and winged seeds generally. It is, however, more likely to afford amusement to botanists than to attract children by the now fashionable mixture of sugar-plums and science.

Poor's 'Handbook of Investment Securities' (H. V. & H. W. Poor) contains a large amount of valuable information very badly arranged. Financial advertisements have been scattered broadcast through the volume, and are encountered in the most unexpected and inappropriate places. The table of contents is hidden in a cloud of advertisements, and the only index is one of advertisers. The collection of facts and figures is probably accurate, though a cursory examination shows that it is not invariably and absolutely so; but the judicious investor will do well to bear in mind the old adage that nothing is so misleading as facts except figures.

'The Swordsman,' by Captain Alfred Hutton (B. Westermann & Co.), is a neat and convenient manual of fencing. The only novelty in it is the suggestion of *blindfolded lessons* in defence, which, it is claimed, impart that delicate sense of touch which the French call *sentiment du fer*. Considerable space is rightly given to sabre-play, which, from the military point of view, is the most important development of fencing.

The paraphrase of Charron's 'Traité de la Sagesse,' by Myrtilla H. N. Daly, under the title of 'A Treatise on Wisdom' (Putnams), is a condensation of the lengthy and frequently tedious work of the French moralist. Charron will stand a very much better chance of being read and appreciated in this form, though it is an open question whether the enthusiastic judgment of Buckle and of the paraphraser will be endorsed by a reader acquainted with other moralists as well.

Gazier's 'Petite Histoire de la Littérature Française' (A. Colin & Cie.) is a catalogue of biographical notices of authors arranged in chronological order, rather than a history properly so called. Analyses of the principal works, exceedingly brief for the most part, and a very full, though in one respect defective, chronological table, are commendable features.

The *Revue Critique* is by long habit cool in tone and chary in bestowing its approval. This characteristic emphasizes greatly the unstinted praise which it lavishes in its issue of September 28 upon M. Max Bonnet's book, 'Le Latin de Grégoire de Tours' (Hachette, 1890). We will not attempt to make any summary of an article which is in its full shape severely compact, but merely note it, and the book to which it relates, for the benefit of lovers of the Latin tongue and of philologists generally. The book, the *Revue* says, is "une continuelle leçon de philologie."

No work of the late P. A. Alarcón was more famous than 'El Sombrero de tres Picos,' and none seemed more hopelessly untranslatable into English. An old folk-tale, saturated to the marrow with the Spanish flavor, it was an audacious thing in Mr. F. J. Amy to attempt its translation, as he has done under the title 'The Cocked Hat' (Minerva Publishing Co.). The work is certainly well done; barring a few minor slips, it is as well done as possible. Even so, the transfer from one language to another is attended by inevitable loss; and what is racy and redolent of the soil in the Spanish too often seems only odd or pointless in English.

The changes in Syria and Palestine within the past ten years are the subject of a striking communication in the London *Spectator* for October 10. Among these the large increase of foreign settlers, chiefly Germans and Jews, is perhaps the most important. The latter now number about 70,000, nearly half of whom are in Jerusalem, which has again become a Jewish city, three-fifths of its inhabitants being Jews. Their agricultural colonies have increased in number and "apparently in efficiency," but they are not yet a success, and their further progress is checked by the recent order from Constantinople "that no land be sold to Jews." The governing power of the Turk has greatly increased, even the turbulent Bedouin tribes beyond the Jordan having been brought under control, so that one may travel in that wild region with perfect safety. Some of these nomads have actually been prevailed upon to settle down to agriculture, and are becoming fellahin. The plain of Esdraelon, which formerly was cultivated only in small patches for fear of the desert marauders, is now "one almost unbroken sea of wheat." The same is true of the Hauran, a "wheat field which stretches south from Hermon some sixty miles, by some thirty broad." This region it is proposed to open to commerce by the railway from Haifa to Damascus, for which a concession has been granted. The educational institutions, Protestant, Roman Catholic, Greek, and Mohammedan, have so multiplied in efficiency and numbers that in Syria the opportunities for a thorough education are second only to those of the first-class European States. The crown of the whole, the "centre of light and leading for all the Levant," is the American College at Beirut. Among the minor changes are the increase of vine-growing and of drunkenness, the wearing Frankish boots and shoes, and the substitution of Russian oil from Batum for the once universally used American petroleum.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a timely addition to his large and valuable series of imperial panel photographs, viz., a portrait of Bishop Phillips Brooks. It is an excellent likeness of the latest disturber of our theologic peace.

—The October number of *Mind* closes the first cycle of that excellent journal, and bears in bold letters on its front the announcement that Mr. G. F. Stout of Cambridge is henceforward to be its editor, in place of Prof. Croom Robertson, resigned. An index to the sixteen past volumes, and a word of valedictory from the past editor, also distinguish the present number. All students of philosophy will regret deeply that Prof. Robertson's bad health has forced him at last to relinquish duties which he always carried on as a labor of love, and for his successful performance of which so far he has earned their lasting thanks. *Mind*, in short, has been admirably edited. Impartiality, completeness, and especially promptitude of information about new philosophical books, and punctuality of appearance, have all characterized it. We Americans have particularly good grounds to feel cordially towards *Mind* for its steady hospitality to contributions from our side of the water, during years when no other vehicle of publication (save our own somewhat wayward *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*) was open to our lucubrations. Now that we have the *American Journal of Psychology*, and shall soon have the bi monthly *Journal of Philosophy* (about to be published at Cornell), we shall be less dependent. What the new *Mind* will do in its turn without American psychological contributions remains to be seen. The study of psychology seems in Great Britain—the native country of the science—to be sinking to the lowest ebb, while in France, Germany, and the United States it advances like a "tidal wave." It seems even likely now (with all our new university laboratories for psychology and young men in charge of them) that we may fill our own journals without diminishing our supplies of psychological material to the older review.

—*Mind* and the *Revue Philosophique* were launched almost simultaneously. *Mind* is a quarterly, the *Revue Philosophique* a monthly. The supply of articles for the French journal seems to have been the more profuse. Moreover, if we are rightly informed, it more than pays for itself, while its English rival has had to make up a large yearly deficit, and, as we are now informed by the editor, has been enabled to do so only through the public spirit of Prof. Bain. To be sure, it has been an advantage to the *Revue Philosophique* to be published in a country which has a "Minister of Public Instruction" who by a stroke of his pen could order every secondary school in the land to subscribe. Nevertheless, the fact distinctly appears, when one compares the two periodicals, that the "philosophical movement" during the last fifteen years has shown a good deal more vitality in France than in England. The English universities are partly to blame for this—Cambridge, in particular, does almost nothing for the encouragement of philosophic study; and now, as always, England neglects organization, and keeps up her old habit of trusting to Providence to raise up the needful number of private gentlemen and amateur geniuses to keep her reputation in the various branches of the ideal from going to decay. It is true that they have never failed her so far. But while waiting for their advent, is it not better to organize the secondary talents to be ready to cooperate with them when they come?

—Mr. Gustav Kruell's graver is never idle. To have produced in the course of six months two such masterpieces as his Lincoln and Webster was already a *tour de force;* but he has now added a portrait of the late James Russell Lowell which, as it satisfies his family and most intimate friends, so will be accepted by the public as the most authentic and artistic likeness extant. "All who knew him and loved him best who have seen this portrait," writes one of that favored circle, "agree with me in this estimate of it," namely, that

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no better presentation of the poet in his latter years can be made. What is especially striking in it, from a technical point of view, is the appropriate difference in the treatment between it and the portraits of Webster and Lincoln—the absence of mannerism. The character of each person has been successfully revealed by the mere method of handling, while the connoisseur is at a loss to pronounce on the comparative merits of the respective engravings. Mr. Kruell has chosen to offer the Lowell at a lower price than any of his previous works, but the inference would be wholly false that he puts a less estimate on his latest performance. The contrary is more likely to be true, and a more popular sale has doubtless been anticipated. The original of this portrait is a photograph by Pach taken early in the present year. Mr. Kruell's address is East Orange, N. J.

—The English Dialect Society has put out three more of its annual publications through Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. One of these, 'Ablaut in the Modern Dialects of the South of England,' is translated from Bülbring's 'Geschichte des Ablaute, etc.,' by W. A. Badham, with an introduction by Prof. Skeat. The other two are, respectively, 'A Supplement to the Sheffield Glossary,' by Sidney Oldall Addy, and 'Rutland Words,' by the Rev. Christopher Wordsworth. There is a great deal that is curious in the new Sheffield vocabulary, and Mr. Addy holds that it bears evidence, "both in living words and ancient field-names," of a strong Norse influence, owing to the Danish occupation of the southernmost part of the county of York. Thus, he refers "Old Harry" to "the O. Icel. *harri*, lord, so that the meaning is 'the old lord'"; and he connects Organ Stubbing, a field in Crookes, with a Celtic root *argun*, 'a forest,' which Förstemann guesses may be the Hercynia Silva of Cæsar and Tacitus. Another odd field-name is Two Days' Work, and there is mention also of One Day Work and Five Days' Work. *Abeless*, 'incompetent, careless, listless, awkward'; *bastard*, in the sense of 'female' as applied to a tree, or of 'puny' as applied to a child; and *forth put*, 'energy,' are other Sheffield peculiarities. In Rutland we come upon *acquainted*, 'in the first stage of courting,' *anew* (*enew*), 'enough,' upon which Mr. Wordsworth remarks that "Prof. Conington, who came from a neighboring district (South Lincolnshire), more than once, in his Translation of Horace, makes 'enow' rhyme with 'due'"; *backen*, 'to retard,' which we have heard in use in this country; *chump*, 'a thick log of wood,' used also of a sturdy child; *hewing cry*, for 'hue and cry'; *not well*, 'unwell,' the latter word "said to have been coined by Horace Walpole"; and *Viper's Dance*, for 'Saint Vitus's Dance.' "I have heard '*invitus*' hazarded as the etymology of the name of this malady," says Mr. Wordsworth humorously, and he proceeds to correct a vulgar belief that St. Vitus is a saint of the Protestant imagination. "He was a noble Sicilian saint, patron of dancers and of those who have a difficulty in early rising" (June 15, A. D. 303).

—The first issue of a new edition of Peacock's novels comes to us with an introduction from the pen of Dr. R. Garnett, whose name is a sufficient warrant for the excellence of the editorial work. He has chosen 'Headlong Hall' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.) to begin the series, and the publishers have made a very pretty book of it, with clear type, an ornamented title-page, a charming little frontispiece, and an attractive cover. The Introduction is of the nature of a biographical essay, in which the editor has done the best for a man who desired that no life of him should be written. Some privately printed memorials of him exist, and out of what could properly be used of these and a few other sources of information in Dr. Garnett's own control, together with what has been necessarily recorded of him in Shelley's biography, the present sketch has been made. His life was uneventful, but his character was idiosyncratic and interesting; and, apart from his fortune in being Shelley's friend and the recipient of the Italian letters, he won a certain place for himself, both as a lover of literature and as a producer of a new kind of fiction. Dr. Garnett traces its origin to the author's failure in comedy, which he tried first; and the style of "that original creation, the Peacockian novel," as the editor calls it, is well described by him as "the spirit of comedy diffused in exemption from the restraints of the stage, like gas liberated by the disintegration of a solid." These novels, of which 'Headlong Hall' is the first, have not been popular, but they have enjoyed the success of being liked by a few; they are too much intellectualized and too abnormal in their characterization of what our ancestors called "humors" to appeal to any but somewhat cultivated and leisurely readers; but they do constitute a special kind, and have an historical interest as one type of satirical literature.

—Very little criticism either of the novels or of Peacock's other works is indulged in by the editor, but he makes out his author's individuality in his actual life very clearly and agreeably, and tells some anecdotes of his life which it is pleasant to know. He records, too, Tennyson's liking for a poem of Peacock's, called "Newark Abbey," which he quotes, as Peacock's poems are not to be included in the reprint. The verses have great simplicity, with grace of feeling, and are not of the sort which would naturally be expected from the author of "The Genius of the Thames." Dr. Garnett takes occasion also to make the *amende honorable* by retracting some criticism, which he now thinks unjust, though not inexcusable at the time, made on Peacock when he published in *Fraser's* the well-known papers on Shelley and his first wife. We observe no mention in the essay of the sketch of Peacock by Robert Buchanan in his 'Glance around Literature,' which affords a sympathetic view of him, nor of the fact there alleged of his learning Spanish when nearly eighty, a feat which certainly deserves to be recorded, if true. Altogether, it is pleasant to find that a man who was honored by Shelley's friendship was more attractive in his personality than those who know him only through Shelley's biography would suppose; and it is to be hoped that the republication of his singular works will be sufficiently successful to insure its completion. It would seem, too, that a minor poet who won the praise of Shelley and Poe and also of Tennyson should have enough of interest in his verse to justify its reissue by itself, for the edition of his works in three volumes is, we believe, hard to come by.

—The most notable letter of Jay, printed in the third volume of the 'Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay,' edited by Prof. Johnston (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is that addressed to the President of Congress, May 19, 1785, recommending that England be approached with an offer to share her privileges of cutting logwood in Honduras and Campeachy—privileges which England herself only enjoyed under a treaty with Spain. The object of this proposal, which we do not remember to have seen in print before, was to slap at Spain through England, and is all the more notable as being made on the eve of the arrival of Gardoqui, charged with the important negotiations relating to boundaries, the navigation of the Mississippi, and other matters that had been pending so long. Why the editor should see fit to print this letter, and suppress everything of importance that pertained to the subsequent negotiations with Gardoqui, is a question difficult to answer. The Mississippi and Spanish negotiations were a most powerful factor from the Revolution to the purchase of Louisiana, and were the origin of that intense distrust of Jay by the Southern States which almost overthrew Washington's Administration. The positive additions to our knowledge which this volume brings consist entirely of letters to Jay. A note from Washington, enclosing some tickets for the theatre, begs that Mr. and Mrs. Jay "may not feel themselves embarrassed in the smallest degree, upon the occasion, if they have any reluctance to visiting the theater." A letter from Mrs. Jay on the New York election proves that she was as keen a politician as her husband, and a philosopher, too: "Much rather would I lose a crown as you have lost the office contended for, than gain an empire upon the terms Gov. Clinton steals into his." Some new letters are printed from E. Rutledge, Hopkinson, Troup, Richard Price, Jefferson, and Franklin, and one more glimpse is afforded of Kitty Livingston, of whom we would know more.

—The many errors of this volume would justify more than a passing notice. The manuscript is not followed, omissions are made without any marks to indicate them, and small attention is paid to a proper proof-reading. A little care would have prevented the occurrence of such misprints as *Olto* for Otto (173), *Munroe* for Monroe (90), *Humphrey* for Humphreys (226), *Varville* for Warville (345), or *Montiers* for Moustiers (162). Temple Franklin may have written "Hudon," but he might have known better; and we doubt if Mrs. Jay wrote *Canzwort* for Gansvoort. In the 'Life of Jay' Ceracchi is spelled correctly; but Mr. Johnston turns it into *Ciracchi*. The dates of letters are often misleading. The letter from Hamilton (page 404) is printed without date; yet the 'Life of Jay' prints the letter with the proper date, November 13, 1790. Washington wrote on the 1st, not the 15th of August (p. 207), and Jay's letter to Jefferson (p. 178) was dated the 19th and not the 9th. Why should two dashes and an ? be inserted on page 245, when a simple reference to the printed 'Diplomatic Correspondence' would have given the proper words—*festina lente?* It was John, not James Lowell who was interested in the affair of Soderstrom (not Saderstrom).

THE HISTORY OF MARRIAGE.

The History of Human Marriage. By Edward Westermarck. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

A NEW book on the history of marriage is sure of a welcome, and its interest is not lessened by the fact that, written in English by a foreigner, it is introduced to the public by an eminent English man of science. Mr. Alfred R. Wallace, in an introductory note, declares that he has "seldom read a more thorough or a more philosophic discussion of some of the most difficult and at the same time interesting problems of anthropology." He adds:

"The origin and development of human mar-

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riage have been discussed by such eminent writers as Darwin, Spencer, Morgan, Tylor, Lubbock, and many others. On some of the more important questions involved in it all these writers are in general accord, and this agreement has led to their opinions being widely accepted as if they were well-established conclusions of science. But on several of these points Mr. Westermarck has arrived at different, and sometimes diametrically opposite, conclusions, and he has done so after a most complete and painstaking investigation of all the available facts. With such an array of authority on the one side, and a hitherto unknown student on the other, it will certainly be thought that all the probabilities are against the latter. Yet I venture to anticipate that the verdict of independent thinkers will, on most of these disputed points, be in favor of the new comer who has so boldly challenged the conclusions of some of our most esteemed writers. Even those whose views are here opposed will, I think, acknowledge that Mr. Westermarck is a careful investigator and an acute reasoner, and that his arguments as well as his conclusions are worthy of the most careful consideration."

Our space will forbid us to take any part in the tempting controversy of which Mr. Wallace here appears as the herald. We shall rather confine ourselves to the more modest task of attempting to explain how Mr. Westermarck's method of examining the subject differs from that of his predecessors. They have in the main studied marriage as a purely human institution. McLennan, if we remember right, does, indeed, suggest that, inasmuch as man is a descendant of a simian ancestor, the evolution of marriage should be traced further back than man; but he did not attempt anything of the sort himself. Like his fellow-students, he assumed that the problem before him was, taking what we know of primitive marriage from the evidence of the habits and customs of primitive tribes and peoples, to discover how primitive marriage and cognate customs were probably evolved by man, beginning with a condition of promiscuity. To take a very simple case: if we assume this condition as a starting point, it is easy to see how a system of kinship through the mother might spring up, the identity of the father being uncertain. Then we must by some other process explain how it is that the maternal is followed and superseded by the patriarchal system, kinship through the father being the only species recognized by civilized peoples. We have, in other words, a certain body of evidence which seems to show that mankind's marriage customs are evolved in a certain orderly sequence. How, knowing what we do know of man, his nature, appetites, desires, and habits, can we account for this evolution?

Now, Mr. Westermarck at the outset parts company with those who have pursued the subject in this way, and insists that to understand the origin of marriage, we must not stop within the limits of our own species; we must examine the habits of animals, and see whether the germs of marriage are not to be found among them. Without reviewing the evidence, we may say that Mr. Westermarck finds a pretty steady progression among the lowest orders of creation. Defining "marriage" to be "a more or less durable connection" between male and female, "lasting till after the birth of offspring," he finds the first traces of marriage among the Chelonia; with the birds he declares it to be an almost universal institution, while among mammals it is restricted to certain species only, above all, the monkeys, anthropomorphous apes, and man. The following is a specimen of the results of the evidence of family, or married, life among man's first cousins:

"When all these statements are compared, it is impossible to doubt that the gorilla lives in families, the male parent being in the habit of building the nest and protecting the family. And the same is the case with the chimpanzee. According to Dr. Savage, 'it is not unusual to see "the old folks" sitting under a tree regaling themselves, with fruit and friendly chat, while "their children" are leaping around them and swinging from branch to branch in boisterous merriment.' And Herr von Koppenfells assures us that the chimpanzee, like the gorilla, builds a nest for the young and female on a forked branch, the male himself spending the night lower down in the tree" (p. 14).

The question now arises, assuming it proved that marriage is not of human invention, but exists in a qualified form among animals, to what does it owe its origin? Considering that the union lasts till after the birth of offspring, and considering also the care taken of the offspring by the father, we may assume that the institution is in some way or other connected with parental duties.

"I am, indeed, strongly of opinion that the tie which joins male and female is an instinct developed through the powerful influence of natural selection. It is evident that when the father helps to protect the offspring, the species is better able to subsist in the struggle for existence than it would be if this obligation entirely devolved on the mother. Paternal affection and the instinct which causes male and female to form somewhat durable alliances, are thus useful mental dispositions, which, in all probability, have been acquired through the survival of the fittest.'

To the question how it can be that among so many animals the father never concerns himself about his progeny, the answer is that marriage is only one of the means by which a species is sustained in the struggle for existence. When parental care is lacking, we find compensation for it in some other way. Among the fishes, for instance, the number of eggs laid is so enormous that the species is preserved without care. The young of reptiles are from the outset able to take care of themselves. Among the highest apes, and in man, the long period of infancy makes a great deal of care necessary, and the necessity for care produces a more or less durable union. Thus we reach the following conclusion: "Marriage and family are thus intimately connected with each other; it is for the benefit of the young that male and female continue to live together. *Marriage is therefore rooted in family, rather than family in marriage*," and in this Mr. Westermarck states a proposition which appears to be diametrically opposed to a fundamental assumption of most previous investigators.

It will be seen at once that this theory is entirely at war with the commonly held belief in a primitive stage of promiscuity. Mr. Westermarck thinks it more scientific, and in accordance with all the evidence on the subject derived from natural history and the accounts we possess of the customs of savage races, to reject early promiscuity as an unverified and unverifiable hypothesis. He first examines in detail all the groups of social phenomena adduced as evidence in favor of the hypothesis, and shows that they do not prove the fact; and with regard to the supposed connection between promiscuity and kinship in the female line, he declares that there is no general coincidence of what we consider moral and immoral habits with the prevalence of the male and female lines among existing savages. Having thus shown that the hypothesis of promiscuity has no foundation in fact, he proceeds to demonstrate that it is opposed to "all the correct ideas we are able to form with regard to the early condition of man." There is, for example, the fact that promiscuity leads to a pathological condition very unfavorable to fecundity, while infecundity, among savages perpetually fighting with one another, implies failure in the struggle for existence. But the strongest argument against early promiscuity he finds in that disposition to jealousy which is the characteristic alike of the male quadruped and of savage as well as civilized man. Evidence of the indisposition of the very lowest races of men to permit the sharing of marital rights is discovered on all sides. Without going any further into the details of the argument, the conclusion reached is, not that promiscuity or something approaching it may not be found here and there, but that "there is not a shred of genuine evidence for the notion that promiscuity ever formed a general stage in the social history of mankind. The hypothesis of promiscuity, instead of belonging . . . to the class of hypotheses which are scientifically permissible, has no real foundation and is essentially unscientific."

The foregoing will give a good idea of Mr. Westermarck's method, and as to the importance of the result, it is easy to see why Mr. Wallace has so strong an opinion. Anthropology, as a science, is founded on the assumption that mankind tends to pass through certain stages of development. A secondary assumption, in that branch of it which is devoted to the study of marriage, is that the earliest form of the relations of the sexes is promiscuity. From this as a starting point we have been told we must derive polygamy, polyandry, monogamy, the various systems of relationship, etc., etc. Mr. Westermarck boldly declares the hypothesis to be untenable. If he is right, the foundations of the science of anthropology seem to require reëxamination. The subject is one of which the fascination is only equalled by the difficulty, and the difficulty is partly inherent in the nature of the facts which constitute its materials. The evidence consists not only of the recorded history of the customs and laws of civilized man, but of the reports made by travellers of the customs and habits of savages, representing various prehistoric stages of evolution. These reports are subject to more than the usual infirmity which attaches to any human evidence, because they consist of evidence on subjects concerning which the witnesses have generally little or no previous knowledge, and as to which they are constantly liable to be misled. Add to this that there is the widest difference between travellers, both in powers of observation and generalization, in carefulness, and in freedom from prejudice, and we see that the sifting of the evidence bearing upon the problems presented by anthropology is a task of no ordinary magnitude. We know from experience how difficult it is for any traveller to give an account of the habits, customs, and characteristics of any civilized country which its inhabitants or other observers will recognize as accurate, yet if we are told that the Fuegians are very jealous of their wives, or that the Andamanese are a very modest people, we are quite ready to accept it as demonstrated fact.

Another difficulty is that a custom, when ascertained to exist, may represent a normal stage in evolution, and may represent something very different. Suppose, for instance, all contemporaneous written records to be destroyed, what would the future anthropologist make of polygamy in Utah, established in a monogamous country? Would not a perfectly natural and plausible explanation be that the Mormons represented a primitive stage in American civilization, and would not America be cited as another proof that monogamy is everywhere preceded by polygamy? Mr. Westermarck's conclusions, so opposed to

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those usually held, and yet based in the main on the same evidence, shows the necessity of sifting, as well as accumulating, the evidence of the facts which afford the material for the ingenious speculations of the anthropologist.

My Three-Score Years and Ten: An Autobiography. By Thomas Ball, A.M. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1891.

AUTOBIOGRAPHIES are generally pleasant reading, and this one is no exception to the rule. Though one of the better of the elder generation of American sculptors, Mr. Ball is hardly an artist of such distinction that an account of his life is a desideratum in art history, nor has that life been so full of strange vicissitude and interesting circumstance as to make the mere recounting of it romantic. It has been a simple life enough, that of a shrewd and thrifty Yankee who, devoting himself to art, made his way in it, and rose from humble beginnings to an enviable position, as he would have done in any other walk of life, by the exercise of his Yankee thrift and shrewdness. But the gentle egotism of a veteran looking back upon the struggle of life pervades the book, and its somewhat loose and colloquial style and chatty, gossipy manner have a distinct charm and leave an agreeable impression.

Thomas Ball was born in Charlestown, Mass., on the 3d of June, 1819, but his family removed, in his early childhood, to Boston, where his youth was passed. His father was a "house, sign, and fancy painter," but, the son is inclined to think, possessed an artistic temperament and longed for a higher class of work than he was able to do. Thomas himself showed no particular love for or interest in art until his fourteenth or fifteenth year. He was gifted, however, with a notable mechanical aptitude, such as is not infrequent with sculptors, which showed itself in ship-building and in the making of musical instruments. He was exceedingly fond of music, and, in later years, supported himself by the use of his voice while he pursued the study of painting, the art to which he was at first devoted. His schooling was interrupted when he was twelve years old by the death of his father and the consequent necessity of earning something towards his own support and that of his family. He was engaged as shop and errand boy first by a retail grocer, then by a merchant tailor, and he has some rather amusing stories to tell of his experiences in these positions. His next step, and, as he thinks, a decisive one in his life, was to enter the employment of the "New England Museum," the nucleus of the "Boston Museum." His duties were to dust pictures, clean glass cases, and show strangers about the collections. He seems to have had an invincible repugnance to the second of these duties, but he soon made himself so useful in repairing and keeping in good order the various mechanical toys of the institution that he won the good graces of his employers and an increase of wages. At the same time, another future sculptor, who was destined to become one of Ball's most intimate friends, Hiram Powers, was making himself similarly useful in a similar position in the Cincinnati Museum.

Ball's first effort in art was made in the Museum, and was a pencil drawing in profile from one of the portraits he was engaged to dust. This suggested to a friend the possibility of his making a little money by cutting out silhouettes of visitors to the Museum. The profiles were traced by a machine, but he soon began to add the figures by eye, which brought in more money and was useful training. He was now determined to become a painter, and, after a compromise on wood-engraving which did not last long, had his way. He was, as were most artists of the day, almost entirely self-trained, but soon began to have some success, first with miniatures in oil, then with portraits, and last with "historical pictures" in the taste of the time—"Christ in the Temple," "Lear and Cordelia," etc.—which he sold at prices that now seem ludicrously small, but which, he says, were very good for those days. The only piece of his painting which is reproduced in the volume before us, the portrait of his mother, painted in 1841, would seem, from the photogravure, to be an excellent and dignified bit of work. At this time Ball and George Fuller were intimates and studio companions, and the account of their blind gropings after technical excellence, without guidance of any kind, throws much light on the subsequent work and career of the latter.

Mr. Ball does not give us the exact date of his first attempting sculpture, but it must have been some time after 1848—the date of his "Christ in the Temple"—and some time before 1854, the date of his marriage. The occasion of it was a disappointment in love which rendered his regular work—for which the lady had kindly served him as a model—odious to him, and made him take to modelling as a distraction. His first publicly shown bust was a small one of Jenny Lind, modelled from photographs, at the time of her appearance in Boston. It took, and he soon found himself with many orders for cabinet-sized busts. His first life sized bust was one of Daniel Webster, which was finished in the nick of time, a few days before the death of the statesman. The knack of timeliness Mr. Ball always retained. He seems to have found sculpture more remunerative than painting, and about this time definitively abandoned the latter for the former.

In 1854 Mr. Ball married and went to Italy, where he remained two years. He returned to Boston and made a small model of the equestrian Washington, now in the Public Garden, which was much admired by artists and the public, and a subscription was started in 1859 for its erection. It was not finally unveiled until 1869. Orders for work, public and private, flowed in upon him, and the rest of his long life has been that of a highly successful sculptor. The book becomes largely an account of commissions received and executed, culminating in the great Washington monument for the town of Methuen, on which he is now engaged. In 1865 he returned to Florence, where, with brief intervals, he has resided ever since.

His autobiography is the record of an honorable life, and shows many captivating traits of character. Honesty, thrift, intelligence, humor, strong religious feeling, and a firm belief in good angels and evil spirits, a good deal of modesty and not a little gay vanity, seem to be the strongest characteristics of a nature not marked by genius or especially artistic, but thoroughly wholesome and kindly. In taking leave of Mr. Ball, we heartily wish him many more years added to the three-score and ten he has spent so well.

A Translation of Dante's Eleven Letters, with Explanatory Notes and Historical Comments, by Charles Sterrett Latham. Edited by George Rice Carpenter, with a Preface by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891. Pp. xiii + 284.

THIS volume, as we learn from Prof. Norton's preface, is the memorial of a brave young scholar who, while still an undergraduate at Harvard, was stricken with paralysis, but who, in spite of this calamity, with nothing before him but the prospect "that his days were henceforth to be passed monotonously upon the bed, with the little variety of a change to the couch or the invalid's chair," determined to make the best of the strength that remained to him. He first devoted himself to getting his bachelor's degree—the examinations being held at his bedside—and then, having become interested in the study of Dante, he resolved to compete for the prize annually offered by the Dante Society at Harvard. Choosing for his subject the translation of Dante's Letters, with historical comments, he accomplished an amount of work that can best be understood by those who have themselves driven a furrow in the vast field of Dantesque literature, and then he died a day or two too soon to know that the prize had been awarded to him.

It is fitting that his work should be published, not only because it bears witness to a noble fortitude, but also because it is an excellent translation of Dante's Letters, hitherto neglected by English-speaking scholars. All of Dante's prose works are now accessible in good English versions. These letters contain so much that has a biographical interest, and throw so many side-lights on Dante's poetical methods and on his philosophy, that they cannot be overlooked by any one who wishes to understand the greatest man of the mediæval world, and, after Shakspere, the greatest of poets. So far as we have compared Mr. Latham's translation with the original, we have found it uniformly accurate, and, what is more, very readable—a difficult achievement in view of the stiff Latin of the original; it is far more concise and not less clear than Fraticelli's Italian version.

In the comments Mr. Latham shows not only the thoroughness with which he examined his materials, but also a fine historical sense in handling them. He gives a vivid picture of the Florentine factions at the time of Dante's banishment; he traces the history of the Counts Guidi and the Malaspina; he tells briefly the origin of the Babylonish Captivity, and discusses the Scaligeri and Dante's relations with them. If in all this there be nothing absolutely new, the service which Mr. Latham has rendered is not less valuable; for he has bound together facts from many distant sources, and he has sifted the wheat from a great heap of critical chaff. So much has been written about Dante that it is of prime importance that some clear and competent mind should sum up from time to time the results of voluminous criticism.

We point out a few errors and make a few suggestions in order that the next edition of this book may be better even than the first; that there will be another edition we have no doubt, because it is unlikely that any one will try to improve on Mr. Latham's translation. *Sesto* (p. 6) should be *ward*, because, although Florence was originally laid out in *sixths*, as English towns were laid out in *fourths* (wards), the word came to have a more general meaning. It would be well throughout to translate the party names, "Neri" and "Bianchi"; on p. 9, for "The Neri or Guelphs *was*" read *were*. "*Paladin* of the Roman Court" (p. 36) should be *Palatine*, as the former word has acquired a special significance. *Marchese*, which frequently occurs, should be *Marquis*, especially as Mr. Latham uniformly uses the English equivalent of other titles. "How he rules me *you may discover in the accompanying*

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rhymes" (p. 66) is altogether too free a paraphrase of the Latin text, "Inferius extra sinum præsentium requiratis"; especially as this is a much disputed passage, and as it is by no means certain that the canzone which follows was sent by Dante with the letter. On p. 107, "*a* article" should be "*an* article," and on p. 130, note 2, *coincisely* should be *concisely*. *Actually* (p. 160) hardly gives the force of the Italian *corporalmente;* on the same page *togaed* would be preferable to *togated*. On p. 161, *straniero* should be rendered *foreign*, rather than *strange*. *Trastiverine* (p. 172) should be *Transteverine*. Instead of *Tullius* (p. 201) why not the good old English *Tully?* For "Scaramella *dei* Scaramelli," read *degli* (p. 227); for *Sassoulo* read *Sassuolo* (p. 229). *Monselici* and *Esti* (p. 242) should be *Monselice* and *Este*. *Puliciano* is printed right on p. 247 and wrong on p. 253. *Cangrande* is frequently printed for *Can Grande*.

These letters give sufficient evidence, if any were needed, of the chilling and desiccating quality of the scholastic philosophy. That a mind as intense and fiery as Dante's could not shake off the numbness which long exercise in the processes of the schoolmen brought upon him, is a final condemnation of those processes. The poet broke free; the prose-writer remained fettered and palsied by them. No one would suppose that the author of the eleventh letter could also be the author of the thirty-third canto of the Inferno. Occasionally, of course, even in the Letters, we come upon Dantesque expressions, but in general they are crabbed and, as Balbo said, almost barbarous in style; very different, for instance, from Milton's prose pamphlets, to which, so far as regards their intent, they may not improperly be compared. But their value, as we stated above, is independent of their form, since they furnish clues to portions of Dante's career that would otherwise be unknown. The third letter, in which Dante writes to Moroello Malaspina concerning a love affair in which he was entangled with a woman of the Apennines, we cannot think is genuine; not because we deem it impossible that Dante should fall violently in love when he had entered upon middle life, but because we deem it out of keeping with what we know of his character that he should have gushed in the fashion of a youth of eighteen about his amour. The critics have been so bothered by this letter that they have either rejected it altogether or have gone far afield after some recondite interpretation. Troya suggested that it is a cipher "treating of secret political negotiations"; Bartoli would have it that the woman who captivated the Poet was not of flesh and blood, but merely an allegory of Florence; Gaspary was willing to allow that the woman really existed, but he argued that the love she inspired was purely Platonic. The chief reason for retaining this letter is that it serves as a preface to the Canzone, *Amor, dacchè convien pur ch'io mi doglia*, which is allegorical after Dante's usual manner; but for our part we would dismiss it, together with all stories of "the woman with the goitre," until incontestable proofs of their genuineness shall be discovered. Of the other letters we cannot speak in detail. The eighth gives an amusing account of Dante's mission to Venice; the tenth, whether authentic or not, certainly expresses sentiments of noble self-respect and dignified scorn that we believe were characteristic of him; the eleventh, after its cumbrous exordium, is the most important, because in it Dante reveals the plan and significance of the 'Divine Comedy.'

In closing, we would again emphasize the fact that Mr. Latham's work will be of permanent value to English students of Dante, and we can but regret that so fine a scholar and so brave a man should have been cut off so early.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives Relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. X. Nos. 920 to 1058. London: B. F. Stevens.

We have now before us the tenth volume of Mr. Stevens's great collection. The number of manuscripts of which copies in facsimile are furnished is one thousand and fifty-eight. It is time, therefore, to consider the general character and utility of the work, and its importance as a contribution to our knowledge of history.

As we predicted when the publication of these documents was first proposed, no important historical discovery has been made in consequence of them. The ground had been too often and too carefully worked over. The researches of a long line of investigators, from Sparks to Doniol, had been too thorough. Concerning few periods are documents more numerous than they are about this one; and while the historical scholars of other countries have had many national crises to study, those of America have been more restricted. Our colonial history is the tale of small beginnings, interesting and important chiefly in view of subsequent events. The affairs of colonial New Jersey and Carolina are seen principally in the reflected light of later days. Only with the Revolution do these regions become illuminated by the broad glare of general history, and after 1789 the United States sink again for a long time into comparative obscurity. While the most momentous and the most picturesque events of modern times were occurring beyond seas; while France was overturning her monarchy and setting up her empire; while her armies were overrunning Europe, and the civilized world was joining in the struggle, America played but a subordinate part.

Nor has that part itself proved particularly attractive to her historians or to their readers. How many of those who see this notice could relate the incidents of the war which their country once waged with France? How many have any minute knowledge of that much better-known struggle with England of which very old people sometimes speak as "the late war," and to the widows of whose veterans we still pay pensions? After 1815 the whole world appeared to sit still and rest for a generation. It was not until 1860 that anything happened in our country greatly to occupy the historian. The events of that year and of those which followed are passing but now from the region of personal controversy to that of impartial history. The historical material of that time is still making, in the shape of autobiographies, monographs, and reminiscences. The American lovers of documents (and the taste is as distinct a one as that for caviare) have therefore been fairly driven into the Revolutionary field, and few corners of it have been left unexplored. Mr. Stevens has had many predecessors. He has gleaned industriously after them, but his garners contain but gleanings after all.

It is to be wished that the methods of this collection could have been applied to some of the more important papers which were printed long ago, and perhaps have been repeatedly printed. A facsimile carries conviction with it as few copies can. It may be altered only by gross fraud; and such honest and well-meaning tampering as that of which even great editors have sometimes been guilty, is rendered quite impossible. Here is no chance for abridgment. The important sentence cannot be extracted, and perhaps changed in meaning for want of its context. The page must be given whole or omitted. A correspondence that was really important might be advantageously treated in this way. Until that of Washington, for instance, has been thus published, we shall not feel that the final edition of his writings has been reached. With them, it is true, one reason for facsimile is lacking which exists in regard to the letters of many famous men. No one can mistake Washington's meaning on account of his handwriting. The greatest of Americans has hardly been surpassed in the simple art of penmanship. His chirography was at once legible and full of character. But many important people have written execrably, and the most painstaking editor must sometimes be in doubt as to what they say. To go no further than this collection, the letters of Sir Henry Clinton are sometimes hardly decipherable. When this is the case, we are grateful to the editor who puzzles them out for us; but we may be glad of the means to assure ourselves that our own reading of the hieroglyphics coincides with his.

But with less important papers, like many of those before us, the value of the method is far more doubtful. In respect to not a few of them it may fairly be said that no one would, by any possibility, wish to do more than glance at them sufficiently to satisfy himself of their unimportance. They are reports of spies, full of inaccurate information; letters of advice that never was taken; petitions for aid that was refused. In the present volume are eight distinct warrants given at length, permitting various persons to visit Henry Laurens when a prisoner in the Tower. The method of facsimile makes it impossible for us to glance and skip. We can no more abridge documents in our reading than Mr. Stevens in his editing. We can leave out a page, and so could he, but we cannot persuade ourselves that we have taken in the gist of it at a general view.

And perhaps, after all, the chief value of this work is closely connected with its very tediousness. After the student has spent time and eyesight on the thousand papers, short and long, of this collection, he will understand better than ever before that great affairs are not often managed off-hand by the sudden flashes of genius of a few great men. An atmosphere will have been created in his historical picture. Beside Washington and Lafayette, and the Howes, and Clinton and Cornwallis, beside Franklin and Vergennes and the picturesque Beaumarchais, he will see a crowd of rather shabby figures struggling and striving to promote or hinder the action of the leaders. He will recognize that their lies and jealousies and vanities had an influence, were it only by disgusting and fatiguing their betters. Therefore it is worth while that such a collection as this should exist and that a few earnest scholars should read it. Therefore, every great library in America which collects books concerning our national history, should have Stevens's Facsimiles upon its shelves. Therefore, the young student who proposes to take up history seriously may well spend the many hours required for the perusal of these ponderous volumes.

Occasionally we find something interesting as to the state of civilization a hundred years ago; although, in this respect, these manu-

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scripts are not very rich, far less so than any good memoir or book of travels of the period. Thus in the tenth volume we come on the following bit of news, in a letter written by William Eden, from Dublin Castle, on the 22d of January, 1782:

"I came to town yesterday for a five hours conversation as usual:—after which we held a Council in order to issue the Brutum Fulmen of a Proclamation against some justices of the peace and others on the banks of the Shannon for plundering a Portuguese ship under pretence that she was a wreck because she had fired a signal of distress the day before; at the time of plundering she was lying safe at anchor,—in the week before, at Galway, the troops were forced to fire on a large mob who persisted in the same laudable occupation upon the cargo of an unhappy vessel that had been driven ashore.—I believe that we shall try the effect of an act to charge all these depredations in future upon the barony where such outrages happen." (1049.)

One other purpose these papers may serve, especially when the promised indexes are published. The genealogists and biographers may find material in them. They may help to solve the interesting question what some insignificant person was doing on a day when he did nothing very particular. Somebody's almost forgotten great-grandfather may be relieved of an imputation, or subjected to one, and genealogical societies may be thrown into a ferment. Here and there, on the other hand, a true bit of character may be revealed or a truly interesting incident related.

The Principles of Strategy: Illustrated mainly from American Campaigns. By Lieut. John Bigelow, jr., U. S. A. With illustrations and maps. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 4to, pp. 200.

MR. BIGELOW has made the praiseworthy attempt to supply American students with a restatement of some of the leading principles of military science as taught by the more recent European authorities. These he has copiously illustrated by examples drawn from all the wars in which the United States have had part, especially the late civil war. The maps are sketch-maps, in which minute topography has not been attempted, and by far the greater part of them refer to Grant's Vicksburg campaign, twenty out of thirty-two being devoted to the movements of the month preceding the siege of that city. The method pursued is to state a principle or rule of strategic movement in technical form, explain and illustrate it by geometric diagram when possible, and then briefly refer to some example of its application in the history of American wars. The execution of the task is creditable to the author, and cannot fail to be of great service to his brother officers, both in giving them the form in which current authorities cast the principles and maxims of strategy, and especially in stimulating them to read our own history with constant reference to these principles.

The numerous geometric diagrams give, at first glance, the air of a treatise upon an exact science to that which, after all, can never become such, and must always remain a field in which physical, moral, and mental forces are combined in complex ways that refuse to be reduced to mathematical statement. In his treatment of the subject of the strategic movements of armies respectively advancing against or covering a line or a position, the author faithfully follows the authorities who strive to refer all the conceivable cases to appropriate geometric formulæ, in which the area of command is shown to be limited by circular curves and hyperbolic curves determined by *distance* alone. In spite of warnings to the contrary, the reader is so apt to be misled by such an apparatus of diagrammatic mathematics that it may be fairly questioned whether it does not do more harm than good. Distance is only one of the numerous elements of the problem of moving armies. The smoothness or roughness of roads, hills and hollows, bridges and fords, defiles and plains, marshes and sands, tides and streams, rains and snows, darkness and light, heat and cold, all enter into the physical discussion, to say nothing of the intellectual and moral elements and the personal factors of different sorts.

If we were to seek one element to stand as index of the combined ones, that element would not be *distance*, but *time*. Whether the covering force can reach a threatened point before an attacking one, is, in terms, a problem of time. How many hours away is each? This includes marching ability, character of roads and of the country, obstacles of every natural and artificial kind, and the like. Distance is the simplest, and, in some respects, the least important of all the elements. It might be possible to include in a diagram the modifications of your regular curves caused by the topographical and other conditions, but when it was done, the curve would be so irregular and anomalous that the application of geometric rules to it would be palpably ridiculous. It would seem more wise, then, to omit the mere geometric statement and diagrams, and to begin at once with the natural conditions of the problem. Instead of a dozen figures illustrating the relation of points to lines, give us a dozen good sketches of different topographical situations with the varied classes of obstacles and difficulties likely to be found in practice; and if we must have a unit of common measure by which to compare them, let it be the *time* it will take a given body of troops to march to a critical point, in view of all known conditions. The Confederate cavalry general Forrest would have gone crazy if he had been required to follow the so-called demonstrations in the work before us, but he was nevertheless passed-master in the art of "getting there first with the most men."

It is not intended by this to intimate that the geometric illustrations referred to are not simple enough and clear enough in themselves. The objection is that they demonstrate nothing of practical value, and that the useful knowledge of handling an army has not been begun when the mathematical theorems have been mastered. In this, however, Mr. Bigelow has followed such high authority that the criticism does not apply to him so much as to the current tendency to give rigid form to subjects of investigation of which the elements will not admit it. Nothing but commendation can be given to the efforts of our younger officers in the army to apply the teaching of European writers to the actual conditions of warfare on this continent. Whether the conflict be with the aborigines or between civilized communities, the character of the country makes it necessary to modify all accepted rules when they are to be applied in circumstances every way different from those of old, compact, and densely populated States. To point out these differences, to show the inventions and new methods which they have occasioned, and thus to give American military art the flexibility and the progressive character which belong to it, are noteworthy and valuable features of Mr. Bigelow's book.

The analysis and criticisms of several campaigns of the civil war are clever and interesting. An occasional error is almost inevitable when the author has to gather his facts from the vast and, as yet, almost disorganized mass of material. In his outline of the Atlanta campaign he makes Schofield seize the crossing of the Chattahoochee at Roswell; it was at the mouth of Soap Creek, a number of miles nearer Sherman's centre. He describes the Army of the Potomac as "disorganized" after the second battle of Bull Run; whatever may have been its *morale*, not a brigade or regiment had lost its organization when it marched back to Washington. It could not have taken the field again, immediately, had it been otherwise. In the Shenandoah campaign of 1862, Banks's troops are said to have been, from the beginning, "nominally at least, under the command of Gen. Frémont." Banks and Frémont commanded separate departments, wholly independent of each other, and each responsible only to the War Department at Washington. This separation of responsibility was one of the causes of disaster.

There are rather more typographical and other minor errors than should be in such a book. Meade is sometimes spelled Mead. Edward Johnson (a subordinate of "Stonewall" Jackson) is called Johnston. It is important to keep the Johnsons and Johnstons separate in the Confederate Army. Rodes (a Confederate general) is called Rhode. Lannes (the French marshal) is called Lanne. Cols. Carroll and Tyler (under Shields in the Shenandoah) are spoken of as Generals. Their promotion came later. Most of these are trifles, but they mar the appearance of the fair quarto pages of a book rightly aspiring to some importance.

Justice: Being Part IV. of the Principles of Ethics. By Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

THERE is something heroic in the determination with which Mr. Spencer undertakes, with declining strength, the increasing labor of lifting to their proper place the culminating parts of his philosophical edifice. As this structure rises, the storms of criticism beat upon it more fiercely, and whatever insufficiency may have existed in its foundation, becomes more dangerous with the increase of the superincumbent weight; but Mr. Spencer toils steadfastly and serenely on. His vigor may be lessened, but not his confidence. To change our metaphor, the throng of enthusiastic crusaders with which his early steps were attended has wofully diminished, thinned out by death, and desertion, and discouragement at the unforeseen arduousness of the pilgrimage and the unexpected remoteness of the goal; but they cannot accuse their leader of any variableness or shadow of turning. No doubts have ever arisen in his mind concerning the all-sufficiency of his philosophical principles, and, though he stand alone, like Athanasius, he knows that in the fulness of evolution the world will advance to his position.

The theory of ethics advanced by Mr. Spencer was laid before the public so long ago, in his 'Social Statics' and in the more recent 'Data of Ethics,' that it calls for no fresh criticism. No one can deny that, as a practical system, it is pure and elevating, and for most of the many people who are no longer affected by the sanctions of the Christian religion, the rules of such a system would furnish wholesome guidance. Whatever views may be entertained of the origin of our feelings of duty or obligation or rightness, no one insists more earnestly than Mr. Spencer upon the imperative character of the dictates of conscience, or shows more impressively the evil

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results of disobeying these dictates. But his talent for invective is too freely employed in this latter direction. Society being at present in the midst of an evolutionary relapse or backsliding, Mr. Spencer waxes wroth at society; but he might wisely ask himself if he does well to be angry, for this relapse is only an illustration of his principle that all motion is rhythmical. It must come out right in the end, for evolution requires it, and why should we try to hurry the grinding of the mills of the Unknowable? Doubtless it is true, as Carlyle said, that the population of England is so many millions, mostly fools; but the majority cannot be expected to receive this unflattering doctrine gladly, and are not to be converted to it by harsh words. We heartily agree with Mr. Spencer in his condemnation of the mischievous action of government, but we would have him assail it with an orderly indictment and not a railing accusation.

Justice, according to Mr. Spencer, requires "that each individual carrying on the actions which subserve his life, and not prevented from receiving their normal results, good and bad, shall carry on these actions under such restraints as are imposed by the carrying on of kindred actions by other individuals, who have similarly to receive such normal results, good or bad." The qualification that the actions are to be such as subserve life is inserted because the principle that "every man is free to do that which he wills, provided he infringes not the equal freedom of any other man," would permit injury to another by one willing to submit to injury in return. But the limitation to actions which subserve life is, as Mr. Spencer declares, practically equivalent to saying that the greatest sum of happiness is the ultimate end. We have thus two principles of justice, and as there cannot be two ultimate principles, it is necessary to choose between them. Although Mr. Spencer uses language that would not be out of place in the mouth of an intuitional moralist, he is to be classed as a utilitarian, the principle of equal freedom being a condition of attaining the greatest amount of happiness.

It is interesting to see that Mr. Spencer has discovered the substantial identity of his principle of equal freedom with that of Kant. His attention was called to the likeness a number of years ago, but he states that, owing to his inability to read German, he was unable to satisfy himself that it existed until recently, when he succeeded in finding a translation that convinced him. He points out, however, that Kant derives his principle from a "search in the pure Reason," while the Spencerian principle is to be regarded "as expressing the primary condition which must be fulfilled before the greatest happiness can be achieved by similar beings living in proximity." Again, in Kant's formula the negative element, or obligation to respect limits, is the dominant idea, while in Mr. Spencer's case, the positive element, the right to freedom of action, is represented as primary. The latter aspect is perhaps better adapted to the requirements of evolution.

As to land tenure, Mr. Spencer admits that he took a position in his 'Social Statics' that he cannot now defend. His discussion of the rights of women and children, the right of suffrage, and the nature and constitution of the State, is marked by his usual vigor, but can scarcely be said to add very much to our knowledge of the problems. The chapters upon the duties of the State and the limits of State duties contain a great deal of Mr. Spencer's most emphatic denunciation, but, as we have said, it is doubtful if he makes so deep an impression as he desires, or as his argument, stated calmly, would effect.

Early Travellers in Scotland. Edited by P. Hume Brown. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1891.

THE idea of bringing together in one volume the testimony of a number of travellers, visiting a country at intervals during several centuries, so as to enable the reader to weigh and compare the good and the evil reports, is certainly an excellent one. The present volume contains extracts, more or less judicious, from the descriptions of visitors to Scotland, beginning with Edward I. in 1295, and ending with Thomas Morer in 1689. The books from which these extracts have been made are for the most part difficult of access, and they are admirable illustrations of the truth of the proposition that a part is sometimes better than the whole. A sufficient instalment of each writer is given to show the general tone and tendency of his observations, and by the elimination of exaggerated praise or blame a residuum is obtained which is probably an accurate picture.

As late as the end of the seventeenth century, Scotland was regarded as a strange country where strange things might very well happen. Even its geography was a matter of conjecture, and until the publication of Mercator's Atlas in 1595 it was believed that it stretched far to the eastward in the direction of Norway. Many of the travellers whose accounts are here quoted had evidently read Hector Boece's History, published in 1527, and they reproduce with childlike faith his wonderful stories of floating islands, *barnicles* (or wooden geese that fell from fir trees and came to life in water), and many other supposititious freaks of nature. Froissart was in Scotland about the middle of the fourteenth century, and seems to have been particularly struck by the sustaining qualities of oatmeal as food and by the niggardly character of the inhabitants. He tells how the French nobles who made an expedition to Scotland in 1385 in order to drive out the English, were practically imprisoned by the Scotch until money had been deposited in Bruges to cover the expense of their board and lodging—a curious instance of what bankers call an arbitrage operation in exchange. Pope Pius II. describes how the beggars at the doors of Scotch churches in the middle of the fifteenth century "departed with joy on receiving stones as alms, which stones being of a sulphurous nature were used instead of wood for fuel." Coal mines had, in fact, been worked as early as 1300, although peat was the common fuel. Estienne Perlin found the country in 1551 "poor in gold and silver, but plentiful in provisions, which are as cheap as in any part of the world, and truly the milors of that country and the gentillemans who have any money may live very comfortably." The latter part of this description is still true in this present year of grace. Fynes Moryson, a student of Peterhouse College, Cambridge, says that in 1598 for the lending of £60 there were plenty of good citizens of Edinburgh who would give the lender board and lodging as long as the loan continued—showing either a very high rate of interest or a very low rate of living expenses.

Taylor, called the water-poet, considered Sterling Castle fully equal to Windsor, and declared that there was not such another hall either in Scotland or England except Westminster Hall, "which is now no dwelling hall for a prince, being long since metamorphosed into a house for the law and the profits." Fortunately for him, he did not take passage in the *Mayflower*, then about sailing, for even in Scotland he complains of being stung by the "*musketaes*, a creature that hath sixe legs and lives like a monster altogether upon man's flesh." Perhaps the most interesting traveller that ever visited Scotland—more interesting than Dr. Johnson himself—was "rare Ben Jonson," who walked to Edinburgh and back for a wager in 1618, and wrote an account of his adventures in verse, the manuscript of which was unfortunately burnt in 1620. In the year 1655, Thomas Tucker was sent to Scotland by Parliament to report on the trade of the country, and he made a remarkable prophecy in regard to the future growth of Glasgow, based on what he called the "mercantile genius" of her people, although at that time there were only a dozen small vessels belonging to the port, and the shallowness of the river caused the merchants much trouble. Then came Richard Franck, who had been a trooper of Cromwell's and went to Scotland in 1656, mainly, it would appear, because he was a lover of nature and an enthusiastic angler. So plentiful were salmon in those days that servants, in making engagements, stipulated that they should not be compelled to eat salmon more than three times a week. In contrast to this is the statement of the next traveller, Thomas Kirke, that in 1679 the Highlanders were in the habit of cutting steaks from the living cow, just as James Bruce afterwards charged the Abyssinians with doing; but there is no confirmatory evidence on this point. The last traveller on the list, Thomas Morer, found that the Scotch were "great critticks in pronunciation and often upbraid us for not giving every word its due sound, as when we call *enough* 'enow' or 'enuff' without making it a guttural, but neglecting the *gh* as if not written."

From these illustrations the reader will perceive that there is here a mine of curious sociological and general information about the country and its inhabitants, and the book is certainly one which no Scotchman's library should be without.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, W. J. Battle-Fields and Victory. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Adams, W. D. With Poet and Player. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Alarcón, P. A. The Cocked Hat. New York: The Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Bair, Mrs. A. E. A Sister to Esau. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bixby, J. T. The Crisis in Morals. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Bourdillon, F. W. Ailes d'Alouette. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Bourke, Capt. J. G. On the Border with Crook. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.50.
Brocking, Wilhelm. Die französische Politik Papst Pius IX. Stuttgart: G. J. Goschen.
Bruce, Henry. Life of General Houston. ["Makers of America."] Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Castlemon, Harry. Marcy the Blockade-Runner. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Chaffee, Frank. Idle Verses Idly Writ. New York Geo. M. Allen & Co.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie's Mystery. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Shelley's Defence of Poetry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Coolidge, Susan. In the High Valley. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Curtis, R. H. Important Federal Statutes Annotated. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Dalin, Talmage. European Relations. [The "Unknown" Library.] Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
D'Aurevilly, J. B. The Story without a Name. Belford & Co. 50 cents.
Davis, R. H. Stories for Boys. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Deane, Mary. Mr. Zinzan of Bath. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
De la Saussaye, Prof. P. D. C. Manual of the Science of Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Didon, Père. Jesus Christ. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $7.50.
Dobson, Austin. Four French Women. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Dowie, Miss M. M. A Girl in the Karpathians. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Dunbar, Newell. Phillips Brooks. Boston: J. G. Cupples.
Durham, W. Food, Physiology, etc. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Finley, Martha. Elsie's Vacation. Dodd, Mead & Co.
First Annual Nurse Register. New York: J. H. Vail & Co. 25 cents.

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Froude, J. A. The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Fulton, R. I., and Trueblood, T. C. The College Critic's Tablet. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
George, Henry. The Condition of Labor: An Open Letter to Pope Leo XIII. United States Book Co. 30 cents.
Gray, E. McQ. Elsa. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Griffis, Rev. W. E. Sir William Johnson and the Six Nations. ["Makers of America."] Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Halévy, Ludovic. A Marriage for Love. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Henry, W. W. Life, Correspondence and Speeches of Patrick Henry. Vol. I. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Hermetic Philosophy. Vol. 2. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Herron, Rev. G. D. The Larger Christ. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Hope, Anthony. Father Stafford. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Hulme, F. E. Symbolism in Christian Art. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Hund, John. A Sketch of Surgical History. Chicago: Ed. Ackermann & Co. 75 cents.
Hurst, Rev. J. F. Indika: the Country and the People of India and Ceylon. Harper & Bros.
Hutton, Alfred. The Swordsman. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Edinburgh. Harper & Bros. $1.
Ingersleben, Frau von. Little Heather-Blossom. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Johnson, F. H. What is Reality? Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Johnston, R. M. Studies: Literary and Social. First Series. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Jopling, Louise. Hints to Amateurs: A Handbook on Art. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Kennard, Mrs. E. Pretty Kitty Herrick. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
King, Mrs. Annie. Dr Liddon's Tour in Egypt and Palestine. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Laforest, D. de. Morphine. New York: The Waverly Co. 25 cents.
Lang, Andrew. The Blue Poetry Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Latham, C. S. A Translation of Dante's Eleven Letters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Lee, F. W. Senator Lars Erikson. St. Paul: The Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Le Sage, A. R. Asmodeus, or The Devil upon two Sticks. Macmillan & Co.
Lexington: A Hand-Book of its Points of Interest. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.
Little, Elisabeth N. "Watch ho! Watch!" Dodd, Mead & Co.
Long, George. The Discourses of Epictetus, with the Encheiridion and Fragments. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Ludlum, J. K. John Winthrop's Defeat. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Mackaye, Maria E. The Abbess of Port-Royal, and Other French Studies. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Markham, Capt. A. H. Life of Sir John Franklin. [Great Explorers Series.] Dodd, Mead & Co.
Martel, Henry. The Social Revolution. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Maurice, F. D. Sermons Preached in Lincoln's Inn Chapel. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Mason, Mrs. Caroline A. The Lost Ring, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Mathers, Helen. My Jo, John. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Matthews, B. With My Friends: Tales Told in Partnership. Longmans, Green & Co.
Maynard, Mrs. N. C. Was Abraham Lincoln a Spiritualist? Philadelphia: Rufus C. Hartranft. $1.50.
McCosh, Rev. J. The Tests of the Various Kinds of Truth. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
McDougall, W. H. The Hidden City. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
McVickar, W. B. Lays of a Lawyer. New York: Geo. M. Allen & Co.
Meade, L. T. The Children of Wilton Chase. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Mitchell, Ellen M. A Study of Greek Philosophy. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Moltke, Count von. The Franco-German War of 1870-71. Harper & Bros.
Morris, William, and Magnússon Eirikr. The Story of the Ere-Dwellers, with The Story of the Heath-Slayings. [The Saga Library, Vol. 2.] London: Bernard Quaritch.
Morris, William. The Story of the Glittering Plain. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Part VI. Clo—Consigner. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Myrick, Herbert. How to Coöperate. New York: Orange Judd Co. $1.50.
Norton, C. E. The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. I. Hell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ohnet, Georges. The Shoplifter. New York: The Waverly Co. 25 cents.
Parker, W. T. Records of the Association of Acting Assistant Surgeons of the U. S. Army. Salem, Mass.: Salem Press Publishing and Printing Co.
Peacock, T. L. Headlong Hall. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Perry, Nora. Lyrics and Legends. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Peterson, W. M. Fabi Quintiliani Institutionis Oratoriae [Liber Decimus.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pictures from Shelley. Macmillan & Co. $9.50.
Plympton, G. W. How to Become an Engineer. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Pollard, A. W. Last Words on the History of the Title-Page. London: John C. Nimmo.
Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Second Series. Vol. VI. Boston: The Society.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. The Warwickshire Avon. Harper & Bros. $2.
Reid, Capt. Mayne. Lost Lenore. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Riley, J. W. Neighborly Poems. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Roe, J. E. Bacon and his Masks. New York: Burr Printing House.
Roosevelt, Blanche. Victorien Sardou. New York F. T. Low.
Ruskin, John. Val D'Arno. [Brantwood Edition.] Charles E. Merrill & Co. $2.75.
Sacher-Masoch, L. von. The New Job. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Sand, George. The Countess Rudolstadt. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Seaforth, A. N. The Last Great Naval War. Cassell Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Shattuck, Harriette R. The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75 cents.
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Total Marine Premiums		$5,187,152 33
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1890, to 31st December, 1890		$3,792,974 46
Losses paid during the same period	$1,423,467 21	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$753,158 86	

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Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	2,266,000 00
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Cash in Bank	198,428 18
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